

**A STUDY OF THE MANAGEMENT ATTRIBUTES OF EXCELLENT
COMPANIES IN ZIMBABWE**

by

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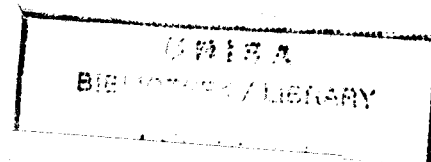
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A STUDY OF THE MANAGEMENT ATTRIBUTES OF EXCELLENT COMPANIES IN ZIMBABWE

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Degree: Doctor of Business Leadership

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Summary

This study searches for the management attributes of excellent companies in Zimbabwe in order to reveal the management practices that have made these companies successful.

Seven most successful companies from among those quoted on the Zimbabwean Stock Exchange (ZSE) were selected in terms of their financial criteria and the macroeconomic criteria in their industrial categories. The research for attributes of excellence has been qualitative - consisting mainly of interviews of chief executives, departmental managers, skilled, semi-skilled, and unskilled employees of the companies. The interviewees were also asked to complete two quantitative instruments: a semantic differential and an observation chart.

Altogether 408 people were interviewed and given a semantic differential and an observation chart to complete. Of these, 398 responded to the semantic differential while 308 responded to the observation chart.

Qualitative data for the study were content analysed and the data obtained through the

quantitative instruments were analysed through the use of the Statistical Analysis Systems (SAS) at the Unisa Computer Services Centre.

There was agreement in the results obtained through the use of the three different approaches of the research. The management attributes which were elicited by the study are that the Zimbabwean excellent companies :

- (a) have a participative style of management;
- (b) always engage in constant communication with all levels of their employees;
- (c) reward good work;
- (d) train their employees;
- (e) promote from within;
- (f) are concerned with the quality of their products and services;
- (g) care for customers; and
- (h) are involved in social responsibility.

These management attributes can be applied by and could thus benefit any type of organisation, trading or non-trading, and private or public. The application of the attributes may not be limited to the enterprises in Zimbabwe - the host country in which the study was conducted - but it may also be effected in companies in other countries with a similar socioeconomic situation to Zimbabwe's.

**A STUDY OF THE MANAGEMENT ATTRIBUTES OF EXCELLENT
COMPANIES IN ZIMBABWE**

Key terms:

Management attributes; Excellence in Zimbabwe; African management; Participatory management; Zimbabwean companies; Communication; Workers' committees; Social responsibility; Quality products and service; Ubuntu in management; Care for customers.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

A: GENERAL INTRODUCTION

1.1 REASONS FOR THE STUDY

This study is concerned with the management attributes of the most successful companies in Zimbabwe. Although research has been done on the attributes of excellent companies in Western countries, Japan, and South Africa, no such studies have been conducted on the management attributes of excellent companies in Zimbabwe. For this research, seven top companies from those quoted on the Zimbabwean Stock Exchange and listed in the Financial Gazette were selected. These companies have been chosen as the best in the seven-year period from 1988 to 1994. The procedure for selecting the companies is detailed in the Methodology section, Chapter Four.

Zimbabwe - like many African countries - is beset by economic problems emanating, *inter alia*, from a lack of proper management approaches. According to the *Economist Intelligence Unit Country Report* (1994), the Zimbabwean economy is characterised by most factors leading to:

- a. a slow growth rate;
- b. a decline in the rate of employment - the rate of unemployment rose from 37,2% in 1990 to 44% in 1993;
- c. more than 82% of the firms operating below capacity - thus leading into falls in both home and export orders;
- d. a doubling of average prices in the previous two years during which average wages rose by only 45% - thus reducing living standards and cutting domestic demand.

1.1.1 Measures To Overcome Economic Constraints

Some measures have been taken to overcome the economic obstacles enumerated above. For example, the country has embarked on a Five-Year Reform Programme to encourage private enterprise by deregulating the economy and easing trade and investment restrictions (Lamar, 1991; *EIU Country Profile*, 1994/5).

Besides the above measures, the country has :

- i. established an Investment Center (ZIC) to streamline the investment approval process;
- ii. narrowed the definition of a foreign company, thus reducing the number of firms subject to the additional controls applied to foreign firms;
- iii. allowed selected new investments to repatriate up to 100 per cent of profits (50 per cent previously), subject to a case by case decision;
- iv. to further encourage exports, an export retention scheme (effective from July 1990) was introduced. This allows exporters to retain 5 or 7,5% of their export earnings (depending on the type of goods exported) to be used for importing any items (e.g. capital goods or materials) they may require for their business.

(*Zimbabwe : A Framework for Economic Reform*, 1991 - 95:3)

1.2 APPROPRIATE MANAGEMENT APPROACHES

Zimbabwe's efforts to effect economic recovery are commendable. However, in spite of all the measures taken, there can be little or no significant progress in the economy unless the management approaches used are improved so as to stimulate increased productivity. Proficient management is indispensable to any given

business organisation. Without it no organisation can apply its material, financial, and other resources optimally to achieve higher productivity and gain a competitive edge over its rivals (Kyambalesa, 1993). This calls for a close analysis of the management structures in the country. And yet, in the case of Zimbabwe, no studies on how the country can improve its management to benefit the economy have been undertaken.

It is in the light of this that this study has been undertaken and the researcher hopes that the results of the study will shed some light on what is required to find a solution to the problems. The importance of this study is explained below.

1.3 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The findings of this study may indicate that Zimbabwean companies vary in operation from those of other countries. The following benefits are expected to accrue from this study: -

1. It is envisaged that the findings will help ailing companies not only in Zimbabwe but also in other countries with similar socioeconomic and political conditions. Companies that are doing poorly may learn valuable lessons about the skills of management.
2. It is hoped that this study could help local investors discover the most suitable management approaches for the Zimbabwean context. These could lead to the success of their investments.
3. It is envisaged that the research would benefit excellent Zimbabwean companies by making them gain confidence from the knowledge that their management characteristics attribute to success.

4. If many companies learn a lesson from the study and do well, there could be fewer business failures, more protracted business growth, and the creation of employment opportunities in the country as a whole.
5. Although the study is mainly focused on the private sector, government departments are also likely to benefit from the findings.

1.4 DEFINITION OF TERMS USED IN THE STUDY

This section defines the terms most widely used in the thesis. The researcher has thought it appropriate to define these terms at the beginning so as to make them clear to the reader and thus facilitate the reader's understanding of the ensuing discussions. The definitions given here are not necessarily dictionary ones but they agree with the context of the study.

The key terms most frequently used in the study are Management, Excellence, and Attributes. In explaining some terms relating to a person and wherever there is a need to use the third person personal pronoun, the term "he" or "his" will be used in place of "he/she" or "his/hers".

Management: The term management is generally defined as the design of an environment in which people working together in groups can accomplish objectives (Koontz, O'Donnel, & Weihrich, 1986:13). According to this definition, a manager has to set up an atmosphere conducive to the achievement of organisational goals. The key concern in management is what the manager does. For the purpose of meeting the objectives of this study, the role of management is concerned with the activities of setting up strategy, decision making, communication, employment of human resources, and fostering of values and beliefs. In this context, therefore, management is expected to fulfil the activities in line with these roles. This operational definition also embraces Mintzberg's (1989) three operational roles:

interpersonal roles, informational roles, and decision making roles. It also covers the relevant dimensions of management (Blunt & Jones, 1992 ; Mintzberg 1989). The researcher adopts the definition of management as described in this section.

Excellence: This is a term referring to the concept of success. The most successful companies are known as excellent companies. In this context, such companies are successful financially; they are stable employers, and in most cases they are good exporters. This definition is based on what the researcher used to identify the companies as successful/excellent.

Attributes: These are qualities. The attributes of an excellent company are the qualities that account for its excellence - i.e. for its success.

Chief Executive Officer: This is the person who has overall charge of the company. The term is usually synonymous with that of General Manager, Managing Director or Executive Chairman. He is the one who sees to it that the company's objectives are met and he sets the tone of the organisation.

Departmental Manager: This is the person in charge of a specific department of the company, such as that of finance, production, personnel, or marketing. He makes decisions pertaining to his department and reports direct to the Chief Executive Officer.

Skilled worker: This type of employee has some expertise in his work. He has either undergone some training in his area of specialisation or gained experience in a specialised area to enable him to be given some responsibility. However, he is lower than a manager in rank. Some examples of such employees would be, accountants, computer operators, secretaries, technicians, nurses, and supervisors.

Semi-skilled worker: A worker who has some basic skill, usually acquired at the work place. Examples of such workers are clerks, till operators, machine operators, and typists.

Unskilled worker: This type of worker is untrained and usually has the lowest level of education and has the lowest rank in the workplace. It is in this category that one finds illiterate people. For example, these include factory shop floor workers and cleaners.

1.5 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Precautions surrounding this study concern three areas as follows:

1. Sample size.
2. Cause effect relationships.
3. Applicability to other organisations and the assurance of sustained extraordinary performance.

1.5.1 Sample Size:

The sample size of the study is extremely small in relation to the multitude of no less than 561 companies of all sorts registered in Zimbabwe. Seven of that number represents only 0,015% of the total. The sample for this study, however, represents 12% of the companies quoted on the Zimbabwe Stock Exchange (ZSE), the universe from which it was drawn. It is only companies quoted on the ZSE which were studied and those performing well were selected from each industry in accordance with the International Standard Industrial Classification Code (ISIC). Mining companies were excluded from the sample because they did not meet the free market criteria designed for the sample. The study has been exploratory and

intensive; therefore, the sample size of 12% is adequate for the type of exercise applied in the study. The size of the sample for the study is also justified by the fact that the study is concerned with examining the best among many and only a few subjects possess such a quality.

1.5.2 Cause-effect Relationships

No pretense is made by this study that all ingredients prerequisite to extraordinarily successful performance have been identified with respect to cause-effect relationships defined in terms of the financial criteria: return on net earnings to turnover, return on net asset value, earnings per share, market capitalisation, and the macroeconomic criteria: provision for local employment, and export performance. For that matter, no assertion can be made that all of the various characteristics found common among these seven companies are vital to continued success. Simply because a company exercises a participative style of management, promotes from within, trains its employees, keeps continuous communication with its employees, and emphasises the production of quality goods and services, may not assure a sufficiently high sales volume, a continuously superior return on sales, a high market capitalisation, a high return on investment, improved export performance, and improved provision for local employment.

However, the researcher is confident that the attributes identified in this study reveal the reasons for the outstanding performance of the sampled seven companies. Furthermore, the researcher thinks that many of these attributes are applicable to a broad range of organisations, business-related or otherwise.

1.5.3 Application to Other Companies

Although reasonably confident that the integration of many of these several findings into less successful companies might enhance their financial and operating performance, the researcher is not keen to suggest precisely how they should be implemented and incorporated into existing organisational arrangements. All corporate cultures contain an intricate network of parts and the slightest alteration of any dimension of which can create unanticipated reactions in other segments. Besides these caveats, the common attributes identified in this study strongly suggest that they can contribute to successful performance, and those managers ignoring their existence or relevance do so at some risk.

1.6 ORGANISATION OF THE STUDY

This section provides an overview of the study by describing briefly what is to be discussed in each chapter. The following conclusion to the general introduction leads on to the section outlining background information on Zimbabwe.

Chapter 2: This chapter reviews the relevant literature on theories on Western management including ideas of the classical theorists, such as Henry Fayol (1949), Frederick Taylor (1911), and popular writers, such as Peter Drucker, and modern researchers such as Henry Mintzberg. African management theories and motivation theories are explained.

Chapter 3: This chapter reviews the literature on excellence. Popular writings on the topic are those by Peters & Waterman (1982), Ball & Asbury (1989), Ouchi (1981), Porter (1990) Peters (1992) and others. The discussion in this chapter provides a basis for the findings of the study. It is through a reference to the

literature survey that the study shows whether there is any relationship in the manner of management between the excellent companies in Zimbabwe and those prevailing elsewhere in the West and in South Africa.

Chapter 4: This chapter outlines the method of data collection and their analysis. The study has used mostly the qualitative approach - the interview schedule - for collecting data. The research is exploratory in nature. The procedure of the research is aimed at identifying the management attributes. The semi-structured interview, has been selected as the most appropriate approach to meet this purpose. However, the quantitative approach of collecting data, the semantic differential, and observation have also been used to validate the data collected through the interviews. The companies studied have been selected on the bases of: (1) their financial performance - return on net asset value, net earnings per share, market capitilisation, and return on sales; and (2) macroeconomic criteria - export performance and provision for local employment. These criteria were used on the companies selected from each industrial classification. Content analysis has been used for analysing the data collected through the interviews. The Statistical Analysis Systems (SAS) has been used for analysing data collected through the semantic differential and observation.

Chapter 5: The results of the study are presented in this chapter in three categories corresponding to the methods used for collecting data.

Chapter 6: This chapter discusses the findings in the light of theory, and meaning in the light of previous studies as applied to Zimbabwe. Recommendations and implications for further research are also made in this chapter.



Figure 1 : Map of Zimbabwe Showing the Country's Geographical Position in Relation to its Neighbouring States.

B: OUTLINE BACKGROUND ON ZIMBABWE

1.7 INTRODUCTION

Zimbabwe is situated in South Central Africa between the Limpopo and Zambezi rivers. It borders Zambia to the north and northwest, South Africa to the south, Mozambique to the east and northeast and Botswana to the southwest (see Fig 1 in the previous page). Zimbabwe covers approximately 390 245 square kilometers. Its population density is about 18 people per square kilometer. Almost the whole country lies over 300 meters above sea level (*Amazing Zimbabwe*, 1995).

Zimbabwe's capital city, Harare, is named after a former African ruler of the area. The city covers an area of nearly 540 square kilometers and has a population in excess of 700 000 people of different races (*Amazing Zimbabwe*, 1995).

1.8 POPULATION AND SOCIETY

The most recent population census, conducted in 1994, shows that the country then had a total population of 10 million, of which fewer than 160 000 were whites. In 1994 the largest towns had populations estimated as follows: Harare (formerly Salisbury) 900 000, Bulawayo 505 000, and Chitungwiza (formerly a dormitory suburb of Harare) 202 000. The population growth is variously given at 2,9% and 3,6% per annum. Therefore, at an average of 3,25% the mid-1998 population would be about 11,3 million. The average growth rate of the urban population is much higher: official estimates are 7,2 % between 1982 and 1994. At this growth rate, Harare's population would have been above 1 million in 1996, and the urban

population would have reached 30% of the total, against 23% in 1996 (*EIU Country Profile 1994-1995*).

The majority of Zimbabweans are Shona - a broad ethno-linguistic group with several regional variants of which the Manyika, Karanga, and Zezuru are the majority. The Shona outnumber the Ndebele, who live mainly in the south and west, by four to one. The main languages are Shona and Ndebele, but English is universally spoken in the towns, and it is the language of instruction in schools. (*EIU Country Profile 1993-1994*).

1.9 THE POLITICAL HISTORY OF ZIMBABWE

A review of the political history of Zimbabwe is important in this study because the various colonial governments which ruled the country from 1923 to 1980 - when the then Southern Rhodesia attained its independence - made laws which impacted heavily on the infrastructure and on the attainment of education and skills by the people of the country at large. This has had long-term effects on the management skills of the people in the country. The political history of the country, therefore, provides a useful background for the study because it reveals the source of some influences on the current management approaches. Zimbabwe used to be a British colony and was ruled for decades by a small group of British settlers who settled in the country. The description of the history below portrays the important events that took place under the various governments and their effects on the entire population.

1.9.1 Colonial Rule and White Domination

Zimbabwe was known as the kingdom of Monomotapa in ancient times. British rule was entrenched from 1923 and white minority rule was introduced through the franchise system. The people eligible to vote were those with a certain advanced standard involving a stipulated income and property rights. The criteria set for those who could enrol in the voters' roll were deliberately formulated to exclude the black majority people from registering as voters (Patsanza, 1988).

For nearly forty years, the Parliament and Government Administration of Southern Rhodesia was dominated by whites. There was exclusive white representation not only in Parliament but also at local government level. In effect the white politicians were responsible to an exclusive white electorate and therefore served the interests of the whites. Blacks were neglected and kept out of the decision-making processes. It became a popular practice during the white-rule period that the party which in its electoral manifesto promised to keep the black people - derogatively termed the "Native Problem" or the "Native Question" or the "Kaffir" or simply "The native" - in their place received overwhelming support from the electorate (Meredith, 1979; Patsanza, 1988).

In 1919 Rhodesia was given "representative government" by Britain and in 1923 this was changed to responsible government. The first Prime Minister under the 1923 Responsible Government was Sir Charles Coghlan.

1.9.2 Major Developments Under Sir Charles Coghlan

In 1925 a Land Commission was set up under the chairmanship of Carter. It recommended the division of land into white and black areas. More than half the land was given to whites and this was generally the more fertile and arable land.

The suggestions of the Carter Commission resulted in the enactment of the Land Apportionment Act (Meredith, 1979; Patsanza, 1988). It was through this Act that all black people were forcibly removed from the land they occupied if it had been earmarked for white settlement. They had to find their own way to the land designated for blacks.

There are no major events recorded about Moffat who succeeded Sir Charles Coghlan in 1927. Moffat's term of office was short and he was in turn replaced by Godfrey Martin Huggins in 1933 (Patsanza, 1988).

1.9.3 Important Measures Taken by Huggins

Huggins made it a point that white supremacy was protected in industry by introducing the Industrial Conciliation Act which made whites owners of the land they occupied in both the rural and urban areas. This act also provided for job reservation for whites. Those whites who were unskilled were trained whilst on the job and they received high wages regardless of their skills and educational qualifications (Patsanza, 1988).

Africans were prohibited from holding freehold tenure in the urban and industrial areas. Black workers usually lived in small huts some distance away from the master's "mansion". In large cities like Bulawayo and Harare, workers lived in areas known as locations and these were generally crowded (Meredith, 1979).

Poor whites in Britain were encouraged to emigrate into Southern Rhodesia. The British and the Southern Rhodesian Governments paid their passage. Big tracts of land were given to the newly arrived immigrants. They were also given credit facilities on very favourable terms. Pamphlets were distributed to the new arrivals informing them on how to treat "the natives". One of the popular hints given to the

new arrivals was that when a native is given food, it should be leftovers and that he should never be given tea in an ordinary cup but in one especially reserved for natives, (i.e. an old jam tin was recommended as most appropriate). The whites were further told that a native was like a child and should not be treated like an adult (Patsanza 1988).

Many whites came to settle in Southern Rhodesia after the war. At about the same time that Huggins became Prime Minister, in South Africa, D.F. Malan became leader of the National Party and he openly followed a system of apartheid and white supremacy. The British were not happy with the turn of events in South Africa because for the first time in that country, the Afrikaners and not the British held the reigns of power. The British, fearing that their interests in South Africa would be jeopardised by the Afrikaners, began to look to the north of the Limpopo for better prospects (Patsanza, 1988).

Huggins readily accepted the British idea on the formation of a federation among the three countries of Southern Rhodesia (now Zimbabwe), Northern Rhodesia (now Zambia), and Nyasaland (now Malawi). On October 20, 1953, the Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland was formed. It had a dual purpose of acting as a buffer zone to Afrikaner nationalism as well as stifling of the self-determination movement among blacks while also promoting the exploitation of African resources by the British government (Mills, 1985; Patsanza, 1988 : 12).

The formation of this federation was an agreement among the white people of the three countries. The black majorities were never consulted (Meredith, 1979, Mills, 1985).

Huggins became the first Prime Minister of the federation and Sir Roy Welensky was his deputy. Huggins, who had been knighted for his services to the British

Empire and titled Lord Malvern, tried to win the support of the Blacks in the three regions by telling them that he had abandoned his former policies of separate development in favour of the policy of "racial partnership". When he was among the white electorate he told them a different story, assuring them not to fear his statements for these were only talk meant for public consumption and not government policy. He further told his white audiences that the racial partnership talked about was like the partnership between a horse and rider. The black person was the horse and the white man was the rider (Patsanza, 1988; Meredith, 1979).

Realising that the idea of a federation was imposed on them and that it was meant to impede their constitutional progress toward self-determination, the black people in Northern Rhodesia and in Nyasaland opposed the federation in the strongest terms. The African National Congress (ANC) in Nyasaland under Hastings Banda and in Northern Rhodesia under Harry Nkungula (and later the United National Independence party under Kenneth Kaunda) intensified the struggle against the imposed structure until it was dismantled in 1963 (Mills, 1985; Patsanza, 1988).

Meanwhile, in Southern Rhodesia, Lord Malvern was succeeded by Reginald Stephen Garfield Todd, a former missionary from New Zealand. Garfield Todd, as a missionary, and his wife, Grace, worked hard to improve the lot of the black people. Among their many notable achievements was the establishment of a very valuable training school at Dayadaya in Zvishabane (Meredith, 1979; Mills, 1985).

1.9.4 Todd's Constitutional Changes (1958-1961)

Garfield Todd made the following changes:

1. Increase in the poll tax paid by adults from two pounds sterling to four pounds. The extra two pounds were used to finance African education.

This was part of the Prime Minister's five year educational plan. The plan was intended to increase primary, secondary, technical and teacher training schools and colleges. There were to be more secondary schools for blacks for the first time in the country. In more than fifty years, the white colonial governments had managed to build only one secondary school for blacks, whereas numerous secondary schools and post secondary colleges for white children had been established (Patsanza 1988). The previous regimes had deliberately planned to keep the black people backward, a central policy advocated by white settlers.

2. Todd wanted the lowering of the franchise qualifications to enable a few more blacks to enrol as voters. A commission of enquiry was set up under the chairmanship of Sir Robert Tredgold, the former Federal Chief Justice and then the Chief Justice of Southern Rhodesia.
3. Todd's government made changes in the Land Apportionment Act to enable Blacks to get ownership of property in major cities. As a result, townships such as Highfield (Harare), Luvuvu (Bulawayo), Mkoba (Gweru), Mucheke (Masvingo), and Sakubva (Mutare) were constructed. Home ownership in these townships was mainly on the basis of 99-year leaseholds (Meredith, 1979; Patsanza, 1988).

These reforms resulted in Todd falling out of the favour with the white electorate. In 1958 there was an internal revolt in Todd's party. The leader of the revolt was Todd's Minister of National Affairs, Patrick Fletcher. Todd's rejection by the white electorate ultimately led to the stepping up of friction between blacks and whites. Sir Edgar Cuthbert Freemantle Whitehead was voted in as Prime Minister after Todd. In his attempt to please the white electorate, Whitehead became ruthless and harsh on Blacks (Patsanza, 1988; Meredith, 1979).

1.9.5 Reforms by Whitehead's Government

1. In 1959 the Preventive Detention Act and the Unlawful Organisation Act were passed. Under these Acts, political opponents could be detained without trial and newspapers which issued statements against the government could be banned. These repressive measures were soon put into effect. Both Acts were later replaced by the Law and Order Maintenance Act. This repressive Act was widely criticised by distinguished lawyers among whom was the Chief Justice of Southern Rhodesia, Sir Robert Tredgold, who later resigned when Whitehead refused to repeal the Act. Section 33 of the Act made the imposition of a death sentence mandatory for anyone charged with throwing a bomb into a building, occupied or unoccupied, regardless of whether the bomb exploded or not and whether anyone was injured or not.
2. Whitefield's government increased the size of the police and security forces which frequently raided African townships to search houses and beat up people found with weapons of any kind. The presence of the army and the police force in black areas was the order of the day. A network of spies and police informers spread all over the country.
3. With the help of the British government, Whitehead tried to establish the Sandys-Whitehead Constitution of 1961 which almost granted dominion status to the white minority rule. The constitution was to provide for a parliament of 65 members consisting of 50 members from the A roll and 15 members from the B roll. Membership in the A roll required very high qualifications in terms of income and property and was almost exclusively white whereas that of the B roll, though still high, was less than that required for the A roll. This naturally meant that, at best, there could be

only 15 black members in a parliament of 65. Constitutional experts predicted that under such a constitution, it would take 80 to 100 years (if ever) for a majority rule government to emerge (Patsanza, 1988).

In 1962, Whitehead called for an election under the 1961 Constitution. His opponent was Winston Joseph Field, the then leader of a more conservative and racist Rhodesia Front which stood for white supremacy. The Rhodesia Front won the election and Field became Prime Minister but he did not last long. In 1964 Ian Douglas Smith, also a member of the Rhodesia Front, succeeded Field as Prime Minister. Field lost the leadership to Smith for demanding a negotiated settlement from Britain to make Southern Rhodesia a republic. Smith, however, wanted a republic in his own terms and he promised the electorate that he would achieve that goal (Ranger, 1967; Patsanza, 1988).

1.9.6 Smith's Rule and the Reactions of the Black People

On becoming Prime Minister in 1964, Ian Smith first rounded up several black nationalist leaders, detaining them without trial. These included Robert Mugabe and Joshua Nkomo. All political organisations were also banned (Patsanza, 1988). On November 11, 1965 Smith made a Unilateral Declaration of Independence (UDI), pronouncing Rhodesia an independent state. The Smith government declared its intention to perpetuate white supremacy by taking tough measures to repress the black people in the country. The latter either had to submit to oppression or resort to an armed struggle.

From 1964 to 1974 the political movements had to wage their struggle for liberation from bases outside the country because all militant groups in the country had been banned. Of all the African Frontline States, only Tanzania was independent in the

early part of 1964 and ready to accommodate the liberation movements. The president of Tanzania, Mwalimu Julius Nyerere, offered his country as a base for the training of guerrillas for the Southern African nationalist movements. The Zimbabwe African People's Union (ZAPU), and the Zimbabwe African National Union (ZANU), made use of the facility (Meredith, 1979). These combatants then frequently moved to Zimbabwe to wage attacks on the government forces.

The first battle was fought by ZANU at Chimoi on 28 April, 1966. The battle of Hwange was also started by ZAPU a year later, in 1967, to the north west of the country (Meredith, 1979; Patsanza, 1988). ZAPU favoured large scale operations. To strengthen its own forces, the party formed an alliance with the African National Congress of South Africa which was looking for a route to the south through Rhodesia (Meredith, 1979). The repression of black people by the Smith regime had long term repercussions for it resulted in the liberation movements' gaining the strength to overthrow minority rule.

The Smith government, feeling the effects of the intensity of the armed struggle through the drastic weakening of the economy and the general insecurity in the country, made several attempts to detract the attention of the politicians from pursuing the struggle. For example, on receiving an invitation from the Rhodesian government in January, 1976, Joshua Nkomo left Lusaka for Salisbury for negotiations with Smith. The talks took three months but failed to produce any fruitful results (Meredith, 1979; Patsanza, 1988; Tamarkin, 1990).

Also on 3 March, 1978, an internal settlement was signed by Smith and Bishop Muzorewa. Many observers noted that the agreement was only cosmetic. Parliament was full of Blacks and there was even a puppet black Prime Minister. However, the white establishment was still in control of the state machinery.

Several constitutional conferences were held over the future political fate of Southern Rhodesia but they all proved unfruitful because they did not satisfy the aspirations of the majority of the people of the country. An All-Party Conference to be held at Lancaster House in London was finally called for. This resulted in the 1979 Lancaster House Constitution.

1.9.7 The Lancaster House Constitution : 1979

It is often difficult to have all problems resolved at one time, especially if the solution involves other conflicting parties. This usually calls for compromise. The same is true of the Lancaster House Constitution. Although it had many shortcomings, it was nevertheless relatively successful because it guaranteed the holding of elections on a one person, one vote basis (Patsanza, 1988 :18).

The Lancaster Agreement involved the following parties:

1. The British Government, as the colonial power.
2. The Smith-Muzorewa regime.
3. The Patriotic Front jointly led by Robert Mugabe, leader of the ZANU (PF), and Joshua Nkomo, leader of ZAPU (Patsanza, 1988 :38).

The most important features of the Lancaster Constitution were:

1. A parliament divided into two - the one hundred members of the House of Assembly, elected on the basis of one person, one vote; and a Senate of chiefs and members appointed by the Government.

2. Entrenchment clauses protecting the rights of the minorities. e.g. whites who would have twenty of the one hundred seats in the House of Assembly for the next ten years.
3. A Bill of Rights constitutionally guaranteeing the rights and liberties of the individual - e.g. freedom of speech, freedom of assembly, freedom of worship, the right to a fair trial, and the right to individual and corporate property.
4. A President who is a nominal head of the country.
5. The Constitution could only be revoked with the 100 percent agreement by all members of Parliament (Patsanza, 1988 :38).

Elections were held in March, 1980, and eight parties contested them. The Rhodesian Front, led by Ian Smith, won all the 20 seats reserved for Whites. The remaining 80 seats for Blacks were distributed as follows:

- The United African National Congress (UANC), led by Bishop Abel Muzorewa, won 3 seats.
- ZAPU (Patriotic Front), led by Joshua Nkomo, won 20 seats.
- ZANU (Patriotic Front), led by Robert Gabriel Mugabe, won 57 seats (Tarmakin, 1990; Patsanza, 1988).

Britain, as the colonial power, was responsible for running the elections. Lord Soames was the British Governor charged with administering the colony during that transitional period. Observers from several commonwealth countries such as Kenya, India, Australia, and the United Kingdom assisted Lord Soames in supervising the elections.

Following the outcome of these elections, Robert Mugabe, the leader of ZANU (PF) became the first Prime Minister, later President, of independent Zimbabwe.

The political history of Zimbabwe and the reforms effected by different colonial governments and the eventual attainment of independence by the country reveals the periodic turn of events. These changes have influenced the management approaches currently used by the excellent companies in Zimbabwe. The discussion in this section, therefore, provides essential background information for the study.

1.10 ZIMBABWE'S ECONOMIC SYSTEM

This section briefly discusses the economic system which prevailed in Southern Rhodesia as compared with that of independent Zimbabwe. This shows the effect the two different systems had on the economy of the country and how they influenced the gaining of different experiences which affected management skills.

1.10.1 Capitalism as Practiced by the Colonial Governments

Capitalism is the system which is mostly practiced in Western Europe and the American Continent, especially in the United States. The governments under this system do not interfere directly with the running of business. Instead the economy is regulated through monetary instruments and the budget. This kind of economic system is usually found among democratic governments. In a capitalist system prices and the supply of other resources such as labour and capital are namely controlled by the market forces.

The Southern Rhodesian governments claimed to be following this economic system but in reality they were fascist. A distinguishing feature of a fascist system is that

it rejects the notion that people are equal, and the nation is compelled to select its leaders from among the aristocracy or the privileged ruling class. This was the premise common to all colonial governments. Following this system, the governments had many of the country's facilities reserved only for whites. No black person, for example, could be offered a job as an engineer or an electrician, and job reservation for whites underscored an unfair distribution of the economic resources such as labour. It is this kind of fascist rule that led to endless conflicts between these governments and the people who believed that such a system of government was inhuman (Meredith, 1979; Patsanza, 1988).

The fascist practices of the Rhodesian governments affected the black people adversely by excluding them from management positions through job reservation as observed above by Patsanza (1988), and Meredith (1979).

1.10.2 Socialism as Practiced by the Post-Independence Government

Socialism is the economic system which is said to be in place when parts of the means of production are run by the people. A socialist state can exist within the framework of a mixed economy involving private and public control of business and corporations. The goal is that each person contributes according to his ability. Socialism is the opposite of capitalism (Patsanza, 1988). Zimbabwe adopted the socialist economic system from the time the country got its independence. The Zimbabwean government owns some shares in certain big companies and until recently has been controlling prices (MacDonald, 1990). Businesses used to be protected but since 1990 the Zimbabwean government has relaxed these controls and embarked on an Economic Structural Adjustment Programme (ESAP; Lamar, 1991).

1.10.3 Financial Control and a Mixed Economy

In Zimbabwe the fiscal year ends on June 30, revenue and loan accounts for the central government are also published for each calendar year. In 1966/67 PAYE was introduced; personal and company income tax accounted for 44 percent of total government revenue in 1987/88, indirect taxes (including customs duty) accounted for another 37 percent, with the balance coming from fees, investment income and aid. There is a stock exchange dealing with the shares of about 60 companies. However, as a source of capital, it is insignificant (*EIU Country Profile, 1989-90*).

Besides South Africa, Zimbabwe's financial sector is the most comprehensive and sophisticated in Africa. The country's policies have been conservative and emphasized continuity and stability. The government's main agent in the financial sector is the Reserve Bank - which sets and fixes interest rates and commercial bank equity ratios, and issues government paper. The chief method of controlling the money supply are government stock, treasury bills certificates of deposit, and bankers acceptances (Turner, 1989).

1.11 COMMERCE AND INDUSTRY IN ZIMBABWE

1.11.1 The Geographical Spread of Main Industries

Industry, as measured by gross output in 1985, spreads out as follows:

City / Town	Percentage of Industry
Harare	46,7%
Bulawayo	25,4%
Redcliff & Kwe Kwe	7,4%
Gweru	4,1%

Source: : *Economic Intelligence Unit Country Profile, 1989 -90*.

The largest single company in Zimbabwe is Delta Corporation (previously controlled by South African Breweries) which dominates beer production, soft drinks production, and general distribution. It also has interests in retailing, furniture, and hotels. In 1987, the Corporation sold a third of its shares to the state, retaining two thirds of the total shareholding. (*Economic Intelligence Unit Country Profile, 1989 - 90*).

1.11.2 Development of the Manufacturing Sector and Entrepreneurship

A few manufacturing companies in Zimbabwe are said to have been founded in the early years of this century. These are mainly forges and repair workshops. Local industry has always been favored over foreign capital and imports. Steel and cotton industries were among the first to be established. The greatest growth in the industries was witnessed in the Second World War, the early part of the federal period and the early years of the Unilateral Declaration of Independence (UDI), from 1967 to 1975 (MacDonald, 1990; EMU, Country Profile, 1994-95).

MacDonald (1990) observes that the situation of the UDI is regarded as having brought out the best in managers. During that period the managers were very entrepreneurial.

.....I found that management then had a very intimate knowledge of their affairs, and there was a sense of dedication to a cause I think in those days there was very good management and people had a very close grasp of what they were doing (Interview 3) (MacDonald, 1990:5).

MacDonald (1990: 6) further observes that military call-ups and the exodus of whites during the war of liberation had a marked effect on the efficiency of companies. In the first place it caused an accelerated ageing of the white

population, as their greater mobility, young families moved elsewhere, leaving much of the economy in the hands of older people.

The wheels came off after 1975 the main problem was the constraints placed on industry and commerce through continuous call-ups. Six weeks in and six weeks out. By the late 70's people had had enough. You couldn't run a business (Interview 2) (MacDonald, 1990 : 6).

At Independence the exodus of whites increased the already acute shortage of managers and blacks who had been brought into junior management positions experienced rapid promotion (MacDonald, 1990 : 26).

According to the observations made above, remarkable entrepreneurship in management was there up to the mid 70's but there after it decreased gradually as a result of the emigration of many experienced white managers. The large increase from 600 to 6 000 industrial products manufactured in the country from 1965 to 1982, is largely attributed to the UDI period up to 1975. At that time there was a complete ban on imports of products that could be manufactured in the country, and the shortage of foreign currency led to the production locally of goods and spare parts that were previously imported. These factors still exist to a certain extent in independent Zimbabwe, although the degree of protection has been mostly reduced. For the foreign investors, part of their profits can be repatriated under certain conditions. Even though protected, the new industries have not been as thriving as they should be. The World Bank studies, however, recommend a reduction in protection (*EIU Country Profile, 1989-90*).

Index of Manufacturing production: Table 1-1

(1980 = 100)

EIU Country Profile 1993/94 :24

	^a Weight	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992
Foodstuffs & stock feeds	135	125.6	131.2	129.7	131.5	144.1	147.2	150.1
Drink & Tobacco	104	95.6	107.9	117.3	113.9	129.9	133.8	134.3
Textiles (incl ginning)	101	190.4	196.2	202.7	208.2	216.6	226.2	176.5
Clothing & footwear	72	106.6	119.5	120.2	137.7	145.0	148.9	124.5
Wood & Furniture	44	86.5	80.9	95.3	84.5	89.9	101.2	105.9
Paper, printing & publishing	61	121.5	119.2	121.4	131.7	136.6	143.7	143.0
Chemical & Petroleum products	125	121.8	119.3	130.8	146.0	158.8	159.4	138.1
Non-metallic mineral products	37	124.6	140.6	140.7	151.7	161.2	170.5	157.7
Metals & metal products	288	98.2	95.1	100.4	106.2	111.4	113.5	100.6
Transport equipment	21	98.8	83.8	103.6	147.4	146.6	142.8	141.0
Other manufacturing groups	12	62.8	60.3	74.1	83.1	48.9	47.9	39.4
Total	1 000	115.4	118.1	123.9	130.8	138.1	143.0	129.9

^a

Based on net output values in 1980.

Sources: CENTRAL STATISTICAL OFFICE, Quarterly Digest of Statistics; Stats-Flash

The above table shows the rate of production over the ten year period from 1982 to 1992 in weights in terms of the 1980 index. The improvement has been marginal in some industries and there has been no increase at all in others.

1.11.3 Human Resource and Black Advancement Issues

Soon after independence in 1980, Robert Mugabe, the Prime Minister of Zimbabwe issued a directive to the civil service requiring black officials to be appointed to civil service ranks so that it would eventually reflect a black/white ratio similar to that of the population of the country. However, such appointments were to be made on merit so as to avoid "window-dressing" (MacDonald, 1990). Even though the directive was aimed at the civil service, it was implicated that the private sector was to follow suit (MacDonald, 1990).

The question of black advancement is very important, still very much alive, a thorny issue. No doubt that in some areas there has been only lukewarm commitment to black advancement, in other areas it is very genuine but it is constrained by a number of things. The official view is that it is going nowhere near fast enough. (Interview 12) (MacDonald, 1990 : 25).

The presidential directive was an advent of a new era for the development of black managers. It is from that time that the numbers of black managers at all levels, the lower, middle and senior levels began to increase. This development has been confirmed by Hofmeyr (1992), who compares companies in Zimbabwe with those of South Africa to determine the rate at which black advancement has been effected at senior, middle, and junior management levels over approximately the same period of time after the attainment of majority rule by both countries. It is noted that the rate is higher in Zimbabwe than in South Africa. This is indicative of the high amount of progress achieved by the Zimbabwean companies in complying with the presidential directive. Viewed in another light, one could also say that the

companies' compliance with the presidential directive was greatly facilitated by the already acute shortage of managers as a result of the emigration of many white managers soon after independence as observed above by MacDonald (1990).

From this discussion, it is clear that Blacks began to be involved in the management of the companies in big numbers only after independence. The new breed of managers got onto the stage only from that time and this is inevitably likely to have influenced some changes in the management approach. It is also noticeable that the Zimbabwean companies have been operating in fast changing environments within the last thirty years as noted in the chapter.

The review of the economic system of Zimbabwe in this section highlights the factors influencing the management practices and skills in the country. As a result of a policy of segregation, the colonial governments left a large section of the population without skills in management. After independence, however, government tendency towards a socialist system encouraged a broader based development of management skills through black advancement. These contrasting economic systems have had an impact on the modern management approaches in the country. This section also serves as background information for the present study and thus facilitates an understanding of the research by the reader.

1.12 SUMMARY

Studies on management are very important, particularly in Africa where the practice has been imported from the West and has to be nurtured in a different culture. It is the hope of the researcher that this study will be of value to the country of Zimbabwe and other countries in a similar socio-political situation.

This chapter has given the general direction that is followed in the succeeding chapters. It has also provided a background to the research by detailing the socio-political history of the country and how it has affected the development of the people, thus influencing their management skills. The next chapter examines the management theories relevant to the study.

LITERATURE SURVEY: MANAGEMENT THEORIES

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The discussion of management theories in this chapter serves to identify the management theories used in the management of excellent companies in Zimbabwe. The chapter gives a brief survey of the classical and modern theories, an African philosophy of management and culture, and motivational theories. An attempt is made to show how classical theories help to reveal the origins of management. Both kinds of theory are important in this study because it is through them that the extent of excellence in each of the Zimbabwean companies is measured. The African philosophy of management and culture is also important for review because the present study is about companies operating in an African country. The influences of such a culture and philosophy on the management of companies under study are, therefore, inescapable. Finally, theories on motivation relevant to the study are also reviewed. This chapter thus provides some underpinning theories for the study.

2.1.1 Classical Theories

The contributions of individuals such as : Taylor (1911); Fayol (1949); and Barnard (1938) to classical theories of management are distinct from those of any of the founding fathers in the discipline.

Taylor's (1911) views are that management should be scientifically based, having standardised rules and precise formulae to render worker behaviour amenable for

measurement and control. On the other hand, Fayol (1949), a contemporary of Taylor(1911), also known as the father of modern management, developed an analysis which allocates management into five functions of planning, organising, staffing, leading, and controlling. Fayol's analysis makes sense but it is difficult to prove that it in fact represents what managers actually do (Fulmer, 1988; Blunt & Jones, 1992). Communication which is easily observable is not in Fayol's list though it is quite evident that the command function would be impossible without it (Fulmer, 1988; Lucas, 1978). The views of Taylor and Fayol were developed before psychology and sociology had a significant impact on the study of management (Fulmer 1988).

2.1.2 Modern Theories

After the 1930's, the human factor played a dominant role in the studies of management. As a result of the introduction of this element, modern theories of management now include motivation and the importance of individuals in the list of management activities. Also added to the list of managerial activities is an environmental concern - the need to judge performance by the impact it has had on the environment in which the organization functions (Drucker, 1974; Lucas 1978; Fulmer 1988; Makower, 1994). This new list of managerial activities will be discussed later in this chapter. .

The contribution of Barnard (1938), foreshadowed the advent of behavioral studies of management organization. His emphasis was on management's role in developing an effective link between the purpose of an organisation and its environment and between its structure and the characteristics of its personnel. These views are still regarded highly in management theory (Blunt & Jones, 1992).

2.1.3 Theories of Popular Writers on Management

The writings of Dale (1965) and Drucker (1977) : give a generally accepted idea of the characteristics of managerial work. Dale's view is a universal one which sees the work of the manager as concerned with getting things done through other people (Dale, 1965:5). He states that managerial work consists of planning, organizing, staffing, directing, and controlling - clear evidence of the contention that he gets his inspiration from Fayol (1949). The assumption in Dale's views is that the form of the organisation or management is without problems and is historically constant. This view presents a manager as a functionary who applies technical expertise to ensure that "things get done : Wilmott (1984:354); (in Blunt and Jones, 1992) and that little or nothing gets done without managerial direction and control (Blunt & Jones, 1992). According to this view, the success or failure of an enterprise depends entirely on management.

Drucker (1977), on the other hand, asserts that management is "a social function embedded in a tradition of values, customs, and beliefs, and in governmental and political systems". He states that competent management rests on "an understanding of the fundamentals of management" (Drucker, 1977 :26). Drucker, however, does not explain what these fundamentals are (Blunt & Jones, 1992). He also mentions the development of skills of communication with organisations and comments on decision-making under conditions of uncertainty and strategic planning; all these expressions are also left largely undefined (Blunt & Jones, 1992).

Nonetheless, Drucker has made a major contribution in emphasizing that management should be guided by clearly defined objectives, leading to what is usually referred to as Management by Objectives (MBO). However, this philosophy of managing cannot be credited solely to Drucker though he has done a lot to facilitate its popularisation (Koontz, O'Donnell, & Weihrich, 1986).

2.1.3.1 Drucker's Three Dimensions of Management

Drucker (1972; 1974; 1977) stresses that there are three things that the management of any institution is faced with: firstly, to think through and define its purpose and mission of the institution; secondly, to make work productive and turn the worker into an achiever; and lastly, to manage social impacts and social responsibility.

Concerning purpose and mission, many theorists assert that business management must put economic performance before anything else (Drucker, 1977; O'Donnel & Weihrich, 1992). Drucker (1977) then goes on to say:

.... an organisation can only justify its existence and its authority only by the economic results it produces. A business management has failed if it fails to produce economic results. It has failed if it does not supply goods and services desired by the consumer at a price the consumer is willing to pay. It has failed if it does not improve, or at least maintain, the wealth-producing capacity of the economic resources entrusted to it. And this, whatever the economic or political structure or ideology of a society means responsibility for profitability (Drucker, 1977 : 37).

According to Drucker (1977; 1981; 1987), the making of profit by organisations is the priority task to be discharged in society because all other social tasks such as education, health care, defence, and the advancement of knowledge depend upon the surplus of economic resources. Therefore, whether managers are heading profit making organisations or non-profit making organisations, they should aim at making a surplus. This surplus, of course refers to profits in business organisations and it means savings in the case of non-profit making organisations. The mission or purpose of management should clearly be to earn profits. The success of business should then be viewed from a financial perspective.

The next dimension mentioned by Drucker is that of making 'the work productive and the worker achieving'. Drucker (1977) explains that human beings are the only one true resource. What ever management achieves, it achieves it through making people productive. The performance of management is achieved through work. Emphasis must be placed on making the worker productive (Drucker, 1977). It is clear that in this second dimension, Drucker means that management has the duty to consider the human elements of the worker at the workplace by providing an environment befitting human needs. This implies that the worker has to be developed in order to be more productive.

Lastly, Drucker mentions the managing of social impacts and social responsibilities of the enterprise as the final dimensions of management. He says:

Every one is an organ of society and exists for the sake of society. Business is no exception. 'Free enterprise' cannot be justified as being good for business. It can be justified only as being good for society. Every one of our institutions today exists to contribute outside of itself, to supply and satisfy non members. Business exists to supply goods and services to customers and economic surplus to society, rather than to supply jobs to workers and managers, or even dividends to shareholders. Jobs and dividends are necessary means but not ends. The hospital does not exist for the sake of doctors and nurses, but for the sake of the patients whose one and only desire is to leave the hospital and never come back.

To discharge its job, to produce economic goods and services, the business enterprise has to have impacts on people, on communities, and on society. It has to have power and authority over people, for example, employees, whose own ends and purposes are not defined by and within the enterprise. It has to have impact on the community as neighbour, as the source of jobs and tax revenue but also of waste products and pollutants. And, increasingly, in our pluralistic society of organizations, it has to add to its fundamental concern for the quantities of life (economic goods and services,) a concern for the quality of life, for the physical, human, and social environment of modern man and modern community (Drucker, 1977:42 - 43).

Drucker makes it plain that all the three dimensions are important; none of them predominates over the other. Makower (1994), is of the same opinion as Drucker concerning the social responsibility of business. He says:

Slowly but surely, companies of all sizes and sectors are discovering that they function best when they merge their business interests with the interests of customers, employees suppliers neighbours, investors, and other groups affected, directly or indirectly, by their companies operations. Some of these companies are led by forward-thinking leaders who have come to recognise that the dangers threatening society - the breakup of families, inadequate schools, unaffordable health care and housing, escalating crime, a deteriorating environment, inner-city turmoil, apathetic citizens, and all the rest - also threaten productivity and profits. The effects that some business leaders' corporate reputation and their workplace, environmental, and community policies can have on financial performance, include: increased sales and stock prices, reduced turnover, and retraining costs, increased efficiencies and reduced waste and energy costs. Others have built companies' operating principles around a business philosophy or moral vision that views employees well-being environmental stewardship, or community welfare as central to success. These leaders are developing bottom-line strategies based on the belief that long-term profitability and performance and corporate social responsibility are not only compatible but are inevitably linked (Makower, 1994 : 10; Reder, 1994; Martin, 1994).

It has also been found that customers like companies that support good causes, according to a survey conducted on corporate social responsibility by Roper Starch worldwide (Martin, 1994).

Popular writers give the impression that management work is for the "professional" and that the manager carries out universally and traditionally defined functions: Wilmott, 1984 :355 (in Blunt and Jones, 1992). Certain roles, for example, Drucker's (1977) dimensions, have to be played by management for it to be seen as a success. These are a prescription to managers and not what managers are observed to be doing, as the modern theorists on management explain the concept.

This conveniently leads this discussion to the survey of the modern theories on management.

2.1.2.2 Stewart's Theories On Management

Until the second world war, management has been in its formative stage (Drucker, 1974; 1981; 1987). Theorists on the profession have for a long time defined it in isolation of the actual work done by the manager. It is only recently that studies have been conducted that define management on the basis of the observations of the work done by a manager. The first investigations were made in 1951 by Carlson, a Swedish professor. A picture of the management activities classified as "communication" emerged from these studies. The activities were characterised by a day which is fragmented by numerous interruptions. This viewpoint has been supported by other researchers such as Rosemary Stewart (1967; 1979; 1989), who classified the manager's job and analysed it on the basis of the type of contact a manager has with his subordinates. According to Stewart (1979), a manager is concerned mainly with getting things done by other people within the organization. Such a manager spends most of his time talking and listening.

The second type of contact is that of a manager who spends most of his time with his subordinates.

Lastly, the third type of contact is that of the manager who concentrates on keeping in touch with other departments. This type of manager is mostly outside the organisation and he mostly works by himself. The emphasis with this type of manager is to establish relations with the other organisations outside the firm. Such relations are important because all organisations are largely dependent on the external environment for the supply of labour, the market, and other support.

2.1.2.3 Mintzberg's Operational Roles of Management

The latest and most popular approach concerned with the work done by the manager is the operational roles approach by Mintzberg (1973). The latter states strongly that neither the classical theorists nor the popular writers help an understanding of what managers actually do; early writers have not distinguished images from 'ideals' (what is thought that managers can do). Mintzberg gives a different and valid picture of what managers do. His conclusions were drawn from a comprehensive study of various kinds of managers, foreman, factory supervisors, staff managers, foremen, factory supervisors, staff managers, sales managers, hospital administrators, presidents of companies and of nations, and even street gang leaders in the United States, Canada, Sweden, and Great Britain (Blunt & Jones 1992 : 21). In rejecting the traditional views, Mintzberg (1989) begins by refuting a number of myths:

Firstly, the myth that managers are systematic planners who spend a lot of time thinking ahead has been refuted by studies which have shown that it is invariably not so. Studies by Mintzberg have shown that managers' activities are characterized by brevity, variety, and discontinuity, and a dislike of reflection. A study of 160 British middle managers and top managers found that their work was discontinuous and varied that they were able to work for half an hour or an hour without interruption only two days in a week (Blunt & Jones, 1992). When planning takes place, it seems to happen implicitly and to be carried out in conjunction with or as a part of other activities. He says that the plans of the executives he studied "seemed to exist in their heads as flexible, but often specific, intentions" Mintzberg (1989 : 11).

The second myth refuted by Mintzberg is that managers spend relatively little time on operational activities, such as dealing with customers because the manager's job is to plan and schedule whilst others "do things" (Blunt & Jones 1992). Evidence

indicates that managers spend a lot of time on regular operational activities involving negotiations, interpretations of soft information regarding the organisation's links with its external environment, ritual and ceremonial activities (meeting visitors, attending official occasions, and handing out long service awards, and -in smaller organizations - contact with customers (Mintzberg, 1989; Blunt & Jones, 1992).

The third myth is that managers largely rely on aggregated and quantified information, supplied by formal management information systems. Research gives evidence contrary to this picture. Managers prefer the oral media, telephone calls being the favourite medium of all the five media the best of all the five media at their disposal: documents, telephone calls, scheduled and unscheduled meetings, and observational tours. Managers have been found to devote about 70% of their time on oral communication and to put a lot of emphasis on soft-information (Mintzberg, 1989).

Lastly, Mintzberg (1989), refutes the view that management is a science. What managers do is not amenable to scientific analysis; it is loaded inside their brains (Mintzberg, 1989 :14). His findings have led to the conclusion that management work can be separated into ten roles shown in the table below.

TABLE 2.1 MINTZBERG'S OPERATIONAL ROLES

INTERPERSONAL ROLES	INFORMATIONAL ROLES	DECISIONAL ROLES
1. Figurehead 2. Leader 3. Liaison	4. Monitor 5. Disseminator 6. Spokesman	7. Entrepreneur 8. Disturbance handler 9. Resource allocator 10. Negotiator

Figurehead: This managerial role is associated with activities undertaken by the manager as head of an organizational unit. The functions involve receiving visiting

officials and dignitaries, and even entertaining customers. Mintzberg's (1973) study showed that managers spend about 12 percent of the contact time on such ceremonial activities and about 17 percent of their incoming mail dealt with such issues (Blunt & Jones, 1992).

Motivator: Blunt & Jones (1992), prefer to term this role motivator instead of Mintzberg's original term "leader". The reason for changing the term is that in recent debates the term 'leader' has been interpreted differently and given a meaning different from that of management : Bennis (1989); Kotter (1990); and Krantz, (1990); (in Blunt & Jones, 1992). This role is concerned with the manager's taking responsibility for the output of others and that of himself. This involves hiring and firing, making performance appraisals, and giving rewards (Blunt & Jones, 1992; Mintzberg, 1989).

Liaison: This role confirms the research finding that "managers spend as much time with peers and other people outside their organizational units as they do with their subordinates" (Blunt & Jones 1992 :23). A small portion of the time just about 10 percent is spent with superiors. The contacts which subordinates studied by Mintzberg included a wide range of people such as subordinates, business associates, clients, managers of similar organizations, suppliers, government and union officials. The purpose of these contacts was mainly for getting information (Mintzberg 1989; Blunt & Jones 1992). These three roles described so far fall under interpersonal roles. They describe the manager as the Centre of 'networks of interpersonal contacts, the key source and repository of information' (Blunt & Jones 1992). The roles to be described below are concerned with the informational aspects of managerial work.

Monitor: This role involves the scanning of the environment for information using both formal channels and informal networks.

Disseminator: The disseminator role is concerned with the sharing and distribution of information to which the manager has access and which in many respects is privileged information. This information can be made available to subordinates, external contacts and so on, for example through meetings, memos, etc.

Spokesman: This role has to do with the manager's providing of information to people of influence outside the organisation.

Entrepreneur: In this role the manager takes the initiative to improve the effectiveness of his unit. This may involve the setting up of projects of a continuous process delegated to subordinates. The importance of a continuous project is that it allows managers to come to terms with the 'complexities of projects and to accommodate them into their busy work schedules'. The projects are reviewed constantly in order to resuscitate, abandon or start new ones.

Disturbance Handler: Disturbances are a common occurrence even among the best run organizations. The question is of a degree of occurrence and not occurrence. Badly managed organizations may have more disturbances because they are not proactive but well managed organizations may also have problems because they cannot anticipate all actions of the actions they take (Mintzberg, 1989). This role therefore, is for the manager to deal with conflicts which are within the organisation or which are seen to impinge on it in some way.

Resource Allocator: The manager allocates resources such as financial, human and other resources and even time.

Negotiator: This activity tends to take a great deal of the manager's time whether at a higher or lower level with the organisation. This involves dealing with such matters as grievances and negotiations of take over bids.

The above ten roles represent the whole aspect of the managerial work. Critics of Mintzberg, however, state that these roles seem mechanical and pay little or no attention to the 'how' and 'why' questions. What managers do may not be what they ought to do : Willmott (1984); (in Blunt & Jones, 1992). This latter criticism may however, be countered by the fact that managers generally achieve intended goals by doing what they do. One might then reasonably conclude that if what managers do leads to the results sought by them then what they do is that which they ought to do.

It is not clear also that the classical functions of management planning, organising, staffing, and supervising are as insignificant as Mintzberg suggests : Carroll & Gillen (in Blunt & Jones, 1992). Allen (1989) as well as Hughes & Singler (1985) : (in Blunt & Jones, 1992) have presented some empirical evidence to the contrary. Even though the modern theories of management emphasise the role played by managers, they are important for this study, concerned with the management of excellent companies, because companies are managed by people. The role played by the manager influences the manner in which a company is managed.

2.2 DISAGREEMENTS BETWEEN TRADITIONAL AND MODERN THEORISTS

The interpretation of classical and popular definitions of management as seen by Blunt and Jones (1992) are too general to provide an accurate description of the work done by managers. These authors state, however, that it seems to make sense to argue that managerial work involves planning, organising, motivating and so on and these seem to be reasonable outcomes.

Studies by Mintzberg (1989), have given a clearer understanding of managerial work. The views of the classical theorists although too general (Blunt & Jones 1992) are not contrary to those of Mintzberg. For example, Mintzberg admits that planning, one of the functions Fayol mentions as involved in management, takes place concurrently with other activities (Mintzberg, 1989). Some modern researchers also argue that the classical definitions of management should not be dismissed altogether : Carroll & Gillen (1987); Hales (1986); (in Blunt and Jones, 1992) because they have some relevance. Classical theorists provided a foundation on which the modern researchers such as Mintzberg (1989); Stewart (1967, 1989), and : Kotter (1990, 1988, 1982); (in Blunt and Jones, 1992) based their research. Even though the definition of management in the present study is based on Mintzberg's managerial roles, the researcher does not reject completely the views of the classical theorists such as Fayol. A replication of studies conducted by Mintzberg has provided an even better understanding of the work done by managers and the way managers allocate time.

In a further pursuance of the definition of management, the next section of this chapter surveys some literature on studies conducted on African management.

2.3 STUDIES ON AFRICAN MANAGEMENT

A study has been conducted by Montgomery : (in Blunt and Jones, 1992), and his team of researchers in nine African countries (Angola, Botswana, Lesotho, Malawi, Mozambique, Swaziland, Tanzania, Zambia, and Zimbabwe); all nine are Anglophone countries.

This study was meant to provide empirical evidence to test the validity of five common complaints about African administrators (Jones & Blunt, 1992). Even

though this study has been conducted on public organizations (governmental bodies), its review is most likely to throw some light into the present study on the management of private companies in Zimbabwe because the cultural context for a Zimbabwean setting for both public and private organizations is similar.

According to: Montgomery (in Blunt & Jones, 1992), the complaints about African administrations are:

- a. that African administrative systems operate like personal fiefdoms because the notion of service to the public is much less of an incentive to perform than the economic responsibilities of managers to their immediate and extended families, and because of their inability to meet these demands from their salaries;
- b. that African organizations and managers are too concerned with operational issues (fire fighting), and questions of territory and status, and too little with policy and strategy;
- c. that party politics and ideological rhetoric interfere with the function and effectiveness of African organizations;
- d. that high performing managers are more likely to be found in the private sector;
- e. that African organizations and managers are conservative and change resistant, preferring the unacceptable present to the unpredictable future (Montgomery 1987 ; 913).

A later study which was in part a replication of the study described above was conducted in a Francophone country, the Central African Republic; the purpose was to show what commonalities existed between the two different kinds of bureaucracies : Vengroff, Belhaj & Ndiayer (in Blunt & Jones, 1992). They say:

Data gathered on public bureaucracies in Senegal, Chad, and Zaire produced very similar findings on items common to these studies. Montgomery found that the roles of high-ranking officials included all those described by Mintzberg, and Vengroff et al. found a very similar closeness of fit with Mintzberg and even more so with the findings of those studying public sector managers (Vengroff et al, 1991:101 : in Blunt & Jones, 1992: 33).

The findings by Montgomery were as follows:

1. Concerning the first image, the probabilistic interpretation of African bureaucracy is perhaps oversimplified, but turned out to be a recognisable explanation of observed realities : Montgomery in (Blunt and Jones, 1992). Montgomery, however, provided little direct evidence to support this conclusion; he seemed instead to rely on inferences drawn from the fact that the behaviour of the strategic managers in his sample (permanent secretaries) was different from that described by Mintzberg (in Blunt and Jones, 1992). Gustafsson, Blunt, Gisle, and Sjoland's, (1991); : (in Blunt & Jones, 1992) experience in Zimbabwe indicates that permanent secretaries often served as organisational spokespersons and displayed a strong concern for the public in both their statements and actions.
2. The second image that African managers are concerned with internal issues was confirmed by Montgomery's data. He tested this proposition by classifying the reported management events into 20 categories of activities

that could be considered instrumental to national development. These development projects included :

- i. introducing a new agricultural, industrial or commercial enterprise in the country;
- ii. discovering a solution or more promising approach to a significant development problem;
- iii. introducing a new service or programme;
- iv. raising standards of products or services provided;
- v. securing a material advantage or resource by negotiation;
- vi. developing more effective working relationships with local agencies or sources of external aid (Montgomery, 1987:917).

The findings showed that as high as (44,5%) of the management events collected by Montgomery could not be coded as having any of the 20 development purposes, and even those which were coded as having such purposes tended to be inward-looking rather than directly relevant to the development goals of the organisation. According to Montgomery, these findings could be explained by the African practice of "rotating personnel among jobs and sectors to advance their career prospects" (Montgomery, 1987 :917).

This finding, like the first one, may also be an over generalisation which would not be valid in a number of African countries, for example, Zimbabwe : (Gustafsson, Blunt, Gisle, & Sjolander, 1991); (in Blunt and Jones, 1992). Management events which were coded by Montgomery such as staff training and development, the improvement of management systems and discipline, and organizational design are important elements of institution building which are accorded high priority by aid organizations : Collins (1989a); SIDA (1990); Johnston and Dryssen (1991);

Palmlund (1991), and by public service review commissions (e.g. ZPSRC, 1989); (in Blunt & Jones, 1992).

Pertaining to Mintzberg's managerial roles, the most time consuming role for African managers was that of internal resource allocator.

There was no evidence to support the third imagery of internal politicking. Permanent secretaries have managed to remain politically neutral (Montgomery, 1987). Gustafsson et al : (in Blunt and Jones, 1992), however, are reluctant to readily accept this finding, commenting that their recent findings in "Zimbabwe were that the newly established Ministry of Political Affairs has recently poached a whole cadre of trainees from the Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development, thereby causing a considerable disturbance to that Ministry's activities" (Blunt & Jones, 1992 : 34).

The researcher of the present study also finds it difficult to accept the latter finding because both ministries, that of Political Affairs and that of Local Government, and the other for Rural Development are ministries of the same ruling party, (ZANU - PF). This fact then invalidates the view that poaching from one ministry to staff the other is party politicking. It is possible that the new Ministry was poaching for new employees and it happened by coincidence that the new ministry had easy access to the employees of the Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development. It is also possible that the senior management in the new ministry could have come from the Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development and they were, therefore, poaching for new staff from among their acquaintances.

Concerning the fourth image, that the private sector in many African countries is relatively small but its effectiveness and management know-how is superior to that of government organizations, there was no evidence to confirm this suggestion

(Blunt & Jones, 1992:35). Montgomery's findings, however, showed that there is little or no difference between the manner with which the large public and private organizations were managed. Permanent secretaries frequently carried out activities which were entrepreneurial in nature and this is reflected in the diary entries quoted below :

Chaired a meeting to formulate a strategy for sustained economic viability of a town that is wholly dependent on a mine for its economy.

Met the Director of Information and Broadcasting to consider the possibility of introducing a regular radio programme to educate the public on economic issues. (Blunt & Jones, 1992:35; Montgomery, 1987:922).

Managers in public, parastatal, and private organizations gave priority to such activities as upgrading the calibre, the capability, or morale of staff and imposing structures and controls on staff or vendor performance. Also, identified skill requirements for managers in the three sectors were very much the same; in particular motivational, interpersonal relations, and personnel management skills were needed (Blunt & Jones, 1992:35).

The final image that African managers are resistant to change was supported by Montgomery's findings. There were hardly any reports of changes resulting from the managers' own initiative (Montgomery, 1987; Blunt & Jones, 1992).

Blunt and Jones (1991a) and Collins (1989a) : (in Blunt and Jones, 1992) observe that the high levels of resistance to change observed in African organizations in conjunction with the preferences for centralized forms of decision making means that appeals to higher authority are still more likely to bring about change than the more fashionable forms of decentralisation favored by some students of administration : Blunt & Jones, 1991a : 36 ; Collins 1989a : (in Blunt and Jones, 1992).

Montgomery concludes that "the changes in African management systems, especially those needing a devolution of power - are the most difficult to bring about." (Blunt & Jones, 1992:36). According to Montgomery, African administrative systems have centralized decision making systems. African administrations need to be more risk-taking, more experimental, more outward-looking, and more client-oriented and for this to take place, there is a need for the creation of institutional environments and organizational cultures which are supportive of such behaviours. This is however beginning to take place in some parts of Africa; in Zimbabwe for example, the government has recently approved more than 100 recommendations for improving the effectiveness and efficiency of the Zimbabwean public service (ZPSRC, 1989) and it has set up an implementation unit to bring about and facilitate recommended changes : Gustaffsson et al, (in Blunt & Jones 1992 : 37).

According to Blunt and Jones (1992):

The institutional and cultural circumstances in which managers in developing countries operate restrict their ability to choose between different courses of action. Because of a system of centralized decision making, and fear of failure, the actions of managers in developing countries tend to be more restrained and considered. They are less likely to act without first checking with a superior and, when a superior is absent, they are more likely to suspend altogether action not governed by a rule (p. 30).

Evidence from studies conducted in both industrialised and developing countries has shown that managerial behaviour tends to vary according to environmental, cultural, institutional, and demographic factors as well as job type, and level within the organisation. In the latter connection managerial behaviour in the West tends to be more fragmented and spontaneous as one moves down the organizational hierarchy,

whereas that kind of spontaneity is not common in African organizations (Blunt & Jones, 1992; Martinko & Gardner, 1990; Kiggundu, 1986; 1988; 1989; 1994).

Jaeger and Kanungo (1993) also state that there is some differentiation with cultural assumptions that affect behaviour in work organisations concerning beliefs about human potential and malleability. "Within organisations in developing countries, human capabilities are often viewed as more or less fixed with limited potential. In developed countries it is believed that individuals are malleable and have unlimited creative potential. Thus one expects more attention to be paid to training in developed country organisations" (Jaeger & Kanungo, 1993 : 134).

2.3.1 African Management Philosophy and Culture

This section of the study focuses on African management; it will help identify the manner in which Zimbabwean excellent companies are managed in relation to the African context.

Culture as defined by Adler (in Blunt & Jones (1992), is the orientation of a society which reflects the complex interaction of the values, attitudes, and behaviours displayed by its members (p 15). Organizational culture can be defined in the same way. It consists of shared values, what people genuinely believe to be good or bad, desirable or undesirable, acceptable or unacceptable, all such things are the essence of organizational culture (Blunt & Jones, 1992). The culture of a people, therefore, influences the way they manage their organisations.

Not much has been written on African management. During the past decade there has been a lot of debate about the economic triad, namely America, the Pacific Rim, and Europe. In such crucial debates the entire continent of Africa does not feature

at all for the reason that the contribution it has made is so minuscule as to be negligible (Khoza, 1994).

2.3.2 The African Approach to Management

According to Khoza (1994), there is no real management track record in Africa. Management in the continent is still on the theorizing stage (Khoza, 1994; Mbigi, 1991). Khoza (1993; 1994) attributes the failure of management in African to doing things in ways that are not African. Business in Africa generally operates in a Eurocentric mould. Africans are not taking advantage of their potential in terms of issues such as values, aspirations, and human resources available (Khoza, 1994). The historical power which has been witnessed in empires such as Egypt, Rome, Britain, and in countries like USSR, USA, and Japan is centered on a system of management and human resources development "which at any one time is the most efficient and effective for challenges of the day. This power is achieved by an adoption and an improvement of values and principles appropriate to the prevailing circumstances" (Khoza, 1994 :31). A case in point is Japan which did not emulate the management system and philosophy of the U.S.A. but chose what it found suitable for its means, modified it and adopted it.

Key components in the management of business have been identified as strategy, structure and systems. According to Khoza (1994), culture is to humans what water is to fish. A business culture should not be imposed on people; corporate South Africa is guilty of such a practice (Khoza, 1991, 1993; Lessem, 1993; Koopman, 1993). Decision making is formed by power relations rather than by consensus and thus fostering adversarial relationships between managers and the managed, buyers and suppliers, whites and blacks (Khoza, 1991, 1993, 1994; & Koopman, 1993). This situation is common throughout the continent of Africa. According to Jaeger and Kanungo (1993:1) the "uncritical transfer of management

theories and value systems has in many ways contributed to organisational inefficiency and ineffectiveness in the developing country context". This then calls for a management approach relevant to the African people.

2.3.3 The African Culture: the Community Concept

The community concept is a typical African way of life. In a business setting, it perceives a business community as a community to which the individual belongs, not one with a legal contract but as a member by chance. It is a community built on close interpersonal relationships and group interactions held together by a feeling of security and harmony on the part of all its members (Smith, 1991; Khoza, 1994).

This community concept has a strong philosophical base known as "Ubuntu" - a Zulu term meaning humaneness. As a particular form of African humanism, ubuntu involves alms giving, caring, being sympathetic, sensitive to the needs of others, being respectful, considerate, patient and kind (Chinkanda, 1994). The ingredients to develop human potential in 'ubuntu' consist of qualities such as warmth, empathy, understanding, communication, interaction, participation, reciprocating, harmony, and a shared world view and co-operation (Makhudu, 1993). The concept brings to the core images of supportiveness, co-operation, and solidarity; that is, communalism. Ubuntu is opposite to individualism. The most cherished value in the concept is working together for the common good. "Umuntu ngumuntu ngabantu". (A person is what he is because of other people). The emphasis is on team work and empathetic communication (Dlomo, 1991; Khoza, 1993; Mbigi, 1995).

According to this concept:

1. rules in business must be fair and reasonable and they must be understood by all concerned.
2. Management must be approachable but not overfamiliar.
3. There must be a free flow of information because everyone has a right to know what is going on.
4. One cannot cultivate a community spirit by withholding information and trying to manipulate facts (Dlomo, 1991; Potloane, 1991).

Where the community concept of business is in place, corporate social responsibility programmes should be more natural (Khoza, 1994; Wolmarans, 1995). Involvement of business socially would be an acknowledgement by business that it exists because of the community. When social programmes are seen in this light, management ought not to expect anything directly from such programmes it is simply a corporate contribution to the overall health of society (Khoza, 1994; Newman, 1991). The concept of sharing according to Mbigi (1995) also implies the sharing of responsibilities - a participatory approach to management. Teamwork should permeate the whole organisation in order to effect organisational goals (Mbigi, 1995).

The concept of sharing, in Africa, has also to do with the imparting of skills and knowledge. Skills are handed down from father to son, from generation to generation. The imparting of skills and knowledge is part of developing the individual and the community (Singh, 1996). In an organisational context, this would imply that employees must be trained to benefit themselves as well as the

organisation. Those given the task of imparting knowledge to others are those with special skills and expertise in their areas of knowledge - usually the elders of the community (Singh, 1996). Decision making is in strata, consisting of the council of elders which together with the representatives of the community decides on matters relating to the community. The members of the community have a right to know of all the decisions made at council (Singh, 1996; Teffo, 1996).

2.4 RECONCILING WESTERN AND AFRICAN MANAGEMENT PHILOSOPHIES

There are many positive aspects in the Western culture from which Africans can draw, just as there are many positive aspects in African culture from which Westerners can draw (Madi, 1995). Many managers in South African organizations are not happy when they hear of a suggestion that there is a need to infuse African culture into the current corporate culture (Madi, 1995).

According to Madi (1995), the need for Africanisation of the corporate culture in organizations manned mainly by Blacks is proved valid by what South Africans recently witnessed in the political logjam which was broken by Prof. Washington Okumu, a Kenyan diplomat. The Westerners such as Henry Kissinger and company who have a brilliant track record of international mediation and conflict resolution could not break the debacle. They were dealing with Africans and therefore, an African solution was needed. In his words, Prof. Okumu stated:

Kissinger's mistake had been to use deadlines and a mechanised approach. In Africa that does not work (Madi, 1995 :14).

Madi wonders' "how many hallowed Western philosophies and conceptual frameworks are there which sound brilliant in books, but do not work in Africa?"

(Madi, 1995 : 15). The countries which are admired today for their economic advancement, such as the Pacific Tigers, used the best in their cultural values whilst extracting the best from Western cultures (Madi, 1995 : 15).

Theory Z by Ouchi (1981) is a case in point illustrating the view expressed above. Ouchi's first task was to distinguish between American and Japanese approaches to management and he detected a unique type of hybrid organization which combined Japanese and American characteristics (Kreitner, 1983; Madi, 1995). It is possible, therefore, for organisations operating in Africa to get one concept of management, resulting from a mixture of both the Western and African philosophies. According to Prinsloo (1995 :7) this becomes even easier when one realises that some African concepts may differ for different contexts, while they express the same meaning. "Comrade" in the communist context and "brother" in the Ubuntu context taken in isolation are examples. Other concepts such as respect for others, sensitivity to the needs of others, compassion, sympathy, communication and participation found in Ubuntu vocabulary are virtues striven for by most modern day people regardless of their cultural background.

The next sub-section discusses motivation theories relevant to the study. A review of these theories is important because *management attributes* are concerned with the achievement of objectives through people, and for managers to succeed in this, they need to motivate their workers. Part of the management successes of the companies studied presently is, therefore, attributed to the way they motivate the people they manage. The motivational theories discussed in this sub-section are those which have often been used by managers and the results of the study will show to what extent the companies studied have utilised such theories.

2.5 THEORIES ON MOTIVATION

The key task of managers is to get people to contribute activities that help to achieve the mission and goals of an enterprise or of any department or other organised unit within it. It becomes clear then, that to guide people in desired directions requires some knowledge of what leads people to do things, what motivates them (O' Donnel & Weihrich, 1992; Kroon, 1995).

This section deals with those theories which have been the subject of empirical investigation in Africa, and have some relevance to the present study, consequently, a number of other theories are omitted. The theories to be reviewed are content theories; such theories seek to identify the major variables which exert an influence on behaviour (Blunt & Jones, 1992).

Management scholars have been interested in finding out why some workers work harder than others who are equally intelligent and qualified. The studies of motivation help them understand this phenomenon. Social changes are continually altering the importance of traditional motivational tools. There is a growing mismatch between incentives and motivation. Some incentive schemes do not work as well as they have been anticipated : (Kreitner, 1983; and Steers & Porter, 1975); (in Blunt and Jones, 1992). The urge to behave in a certain way is often generated by physiological or psychological needs including conscious and unconscious ones. People respond differently to these stimuli (Blunt & Jones, 1992).

There are some biases in the use of motivation by the West and some of these biases have found their way to African countries. For example, job satisfaction is mostly studied in relation to productivity, whereas extrinsic sources of job satisfaction are under emphasised by organisational researchers. They include pay, job security and safety. These matters need special recognition especially, in Africa, where

unemployment in towns is high and income levels are low : Kayode (1970); and Gutkind (1968); (in Blunt & Jones, 1992).

Some research done in Sierra Leone shows that the success of the Guma Valley Co. in that country was that its more than 400 employees had their salaries supplemented by annual bonuses; the benefits included free medical and dental care, car allowances and loans for refrigerators. In addition to those benefits, the company occasionally guaranteed housing loan : Nellis (in Blunt and Jones, 1992). Similar observations were made of unskilled workers in the U.S.A. : Tausky (1969 : 54 -55); (in Blunt & Jones, 1992).

2.5.1 Other Neglected Areas of Motivation

The worker's feelings of powerlessness are an important feature of alienation. Theorists of motivation have tended to ignore these two factors of work motivation and have focused instead on job satisfaction and its relationship to performance. The questions relating to the distribution of power are important within the organisation : Clegg, (1989); & Mintzberg, (1983); (in Blunt & Jones, 1992).

Nord, (1978), (in Blunt & Jones, 1992) noted that the power that the individuals exercise over situations that affect them, relative to their expectations of how much influence they should have, may be of greater importance in determining their experiences of alienation (and perhaps their behaviour in general, including productivity) than is the work itself (p. 1031). This need calls for participation by the workers in the workplace. Participation and the manner in which it has been used in previous studies in Africa as a motivator is discussed later in this section.

2.5.1.1 Maslow's Need Hierarchy Theory

Abraham Maslow (1943), stated that people are motivated by a "predictable five-step hierarchy of needs. People have lower level needs which are basic and higher level needs which need to be satisfied only after basic needs have been satisfied.

The hierarchy according to Maslow (1943) includes, physiological, safety, love, esteem and self actualisation. Not all people are aware of such needs but all of us proceed the hierarchy each level at a time (Kreitner, 1983).

There are three fundamental assumptions which underlie Maslow's theory:

1. People have needs which influence their behaviour. It's only needs which have not been satisfied that can act as motivator.
2. Needs are arranged in a hierarchy of importance.
3. Needs at the upper levels of the hierarchy are only activated once needs at the lower levels have attained some minimally acceptable level of satisfaction. In Africa, it is safe to suppose that the vast majority of lower level workers would be concerned with satisfying more basic needs partly because of their obligations to immediate family and kin. This means that at work they would be most concerned about financial rewards and security of employment (Blunt & Jones, 1992:282).

2.5.1.2 Relevance of Maslow's Needs Hierarchy to Management

Behavioral scientists have subjected Maslow's hierarchy of needs to considerable research. In particular Edward Lawler and J. Lloyd Suttle tested this theory in a

real life situation by collecting data on 187 managers in two different organizations over a period of 6 to 12 months. They found little evidence to support Maslow's theory; instead they noted that there are two levels of needs - biological and other needs and that the other needs would only emerge when biological needs have been satisfied. They also found that at the higher level, the strength of the needs varied with the individual; in some individuals, social needs predominated whilst in others self actualisation needs were strongest (O' Donnel & Weihrich, 1992 : 323; Kreitner, 1983).

In another study, testing Maslow's hierarchy of needs : Hall & Nougaim (in O' Donnel & Weihrich, 1992) found that "as managers advance in an organisation, their physiological and safety needs tend to decrease in importance and their needs for affiliation, esteem, and self-actualisation tend to increase. They also insisted that the upward movement of need prominence resulted from upward career changes and not from the satisfaction of lower-order needs" (O' Donnel & Weihrich, 1992 : 323).

Even though, Maslow's theory has not stood well the test of researchers, it has taught managers one important lesson that a fulfilled need does not motivate an individual (Kreitner, 1983:335). This however, implies that workers can be motivated by needs not yet satisfied. For example, employees who need to satisfy their physiological needs will need money to enable them to acquire items related to the satisfaction of such needs, e.g. food, and shelter. In Africa in particular, only a small proportion of the population has physiological needs well catered for and, therefore, this need category would most likely feature most (Blunt & Jones, 1992).

Malsow's safety needs ensure that the individual is not deprived of his ability to satisfy physiological needs in the long run. Such needs can be reflected in the worker's desire for some continuity in the work process, as this often determines his

income (Blunt & Jones). Kapferer : (in Blunt & Jones, 1992), provides a good case study:

The constant changes in the kind of garments being made and the alternation between production methods produces a continual uncertainty among the tailors about the nature of their daily work. Moreover, the factory manager presents to the tailors no clearly defined set of output expectations on which they can base their own behaviour, beyond that of expecting the tailors to work hard and with as few breaks as possible. This leads to 'sweat shop' conditions, with the factory manager continually urging the tailors to maintain a fast rate of work and threatening to dismiss those who slacken pace. Many of the tailors view Patel as an unreasonable task master (p. 37).

This passage also shows the importance of social relations at work, the quality and type of supervision (Blunt & Jones, 1992). The next level of needs, the social ones, also features in a study by Peil (1972) : (in Blunt & Jones, 1992) in her study of Ghanaian factory workers who did not like the behaviour of their foreman because he supervised them too closely. The workers complained:

" He comes so often he makes us uneasy while working. He is too enthusiastic" (1972 :95).

Esteem Needs, are those which people have for self-respect and the respect of others, and the feeling for status and prestige. At work factors such as work title, and the nature of the job are examples of such needs (Blunt & Jones, 1992). Morgan (1965), (in Blunt and Jones, 1992) found that the prestige ratings attached to various occupations by a sample of Nigerian students were similar to those of the Western ratings. McQueen (1969) : in Blunt and Jones (1992), also made similar findings amongst Nigerian secondary school leavers, where over 65% aspired to professional or white collar occupations while 5,6% aspired to lower-level jobs such as farmer, trader, and unskilled labourer" (Blunt & Jones, 1992 : 285). This shows that esteem needs are a recognisable feature in both the Western

and African cultures. The literature and findings by other previous researchers too such as Haire, Ghiselli & Porter (1963); and Howell (1975), (in Blunt and Jones, 1992) show that the various Maslowian need categories cut across cultures. To illustrate this point, a quotation from Haire et al (in Blunt & Jones, 1992) is worth recording:

.... the most impressive finding in connection with the importance attached to different needs was the relative similarity in the way quite different countries and cultures felt about them... the overall similarity among managers in different countries in their evaluations of the importance of needs may indicate that what people want from their jobs is relatively unaffected by their cultural environment in which they operate..... (Haire et al, 1963:111).

The table below shows the Maslowian Hierarchy of needs as sketched by Ivancevich, Szilagyi & Wallace : (in Blunt & Jones, 1992).

TABLE 2.2 : MASLOW'S NEED HIERARCHY

GENERAL FACTORS ASSOCIATED WITH EACH LEVEL OF NEED	LEVEL IN THE NEED HIERARCHY	ORGANISATIONAL FACTORS ASSOCIATED WITH EACH LEVEL OF NEED
1. Growth 2. Achievement 3. Advancement	Self -actualisation	1. Challenging job 2. Creative opportunities 3. Advancement in the organisation
1. Recognition 2. Status 3. Self-esteem 4. Self -respect	Ego, Status and Esteem	1. Job title 2. Merit pay increases 3. Peer/supervisory recognition 4. Work itself 5. Responsibility 6. Interactions with supervisors and peers.
1. companionship 2. affection 3. friendship	social	1. Quality of supervision 2. Compatible work group 3. professional friendships
1. safety 2. Security 3. Competence 4. Stability	Safety and Security	1. General salary increases 2. Job security 3. Fringe benefits 4. Safe working conditions
1. Air 2. Food 3. Shelter	Physiological	1. Base salary 2. Heat and cold 3. Canteen Facilities 4. Working conditions.

(Ivancevich, Szilagyi and Wallace; 1977).

2.5.1.3 The Porter and Lawler Model

This one is a more complete model of motivation built in large part on expectancy theory. The model indicates that the amount of effort (strength of motivation and energy exerted) depends on the value of a reward plus the amount of energy a person believes is required and the probability of receiving the reward. The perceived effort and probability of actually getting a reward are in turn, also influenced by the reward of actual performance.

The theory implies that if people know that they can do a job or if they have done it, they have a better appreciation of the effort required and know better the probability of rewards (O' Donnel & Wehrich, 1992; Kreitner, 1983).

2.5.1.4 Reinforcement Theories

The theory on reinforcement was developed by B.F. Skinner and it is mainly concerned with positive reinforcement and behaviour modification. It emphasizes that individuals can be motivated by a proper designing of their work environment and praise for their performance; it further states that punishment for poor performance produces negative results. People need to be informed of an organisation's problems especially those in which they are involved because this has the effect of giving them some confidence and a feeling of trust (Koontz, et al, 1986; Lee, 1980).

From a description of this theory it becomes evident that the practices by managers to appraise their employees, giving them feedback on their performances, promotions, and involving them in decision making would be the implementation of this theory.

2.5.1.5 McClelland's Needs Theory of Motivation

In this theory McClelland identified three basic types of motivation:

- (1) the need for power
- (2) the need for affiliation and
- (3) the need for achievement.

(Kroon, 1995; O'Donnel & Weihrich, 1992; Lucas, 1978)

2.5.1.6 McGregor's Theories X and Y

These theories by McGregor reflect some assumptions adopted by managers in leading their subordinates. Theory X states that an average human being has a dislike for work. It further states that people cannot be trusted and are generally lazy and will avoid work if they can. Those managers who adopt this attitude will tend to be reluctant to delegate. Theory Y on the other hand states that an average person can be trusted and likes work in as much as he likes exercise. Exponents of this theory tend to consult and would even delegate more responsibility to their subordinates.

Some analysts classify these theories into two categories; theory X is concerned with production while theory Y is concerned with people (Lucas, 1978). Managers faced with the problem of getting output from their employees will be interested in any human conduct that assists them and they will prefer explanations which are simple even though human beings are complex (Koontz et al, 1986).

2.6 MOTIVATIONAL TECHNIQUES USED BY MANAGERS

2.6.1 Money as a Motivator

Money is important as a motivator. Economists and managers tend to place it high on the scale of motivation while behavioral scientists to place it low. Lucas (1978) lists the following characteristics of money as a motivator:

1. It is likely to be more important to people who are raising a family than to those who are already established and whose money needs are not so urgent.
2. It is a means of keeping an organisation adequately staffed, because it attracts and holds people.
3. It is dulled by making salaries of various managers similar.
4. It bases compensation on performance.

As already noted under the section of physiological needs above, money is instrumental in satisfying such needs and its use as a motivator is prevalent in Africa. It is used in the payment of bonuses, gratuities, etc.

2.6.2 Participation as a Motivator

The right use of participation can yield both motivation and knowledge valuable for enterprise success. It is a means of recognition and it appeals to the need for affiliation and acceptance and it gives people a sense of accomplishment (Lucas 1978; Koontz et al 1986; Andrews, 1994). According to Robson, (1986); Kroon,

(1995); and van Niekerk (1987); participation in the activities of the business usually increases employees' commitment, satisfaction, performance, and motivation through personal contact. A participative management approach is often regarded as a healthy organisational climate (Likert & Likert, 1976). The use of this technique is common among managers of various organizations.

Participation generally takes two forms, direct and indirect forms of participation. Direct participation refers to a situation in which individual workers participate personally in decision making. They speak for themselves in a context which grants them equal power to other participants. On the other hand, indirect power, refers to the participation of the workers in the decision making process through representatives. Elected worker representatives from lower levels represent their constituencies on decision making at higher levels (Blunt & Jones, 1992).

In participative management, employees play a direct role in planning, decision-making and change in the business. It integrates the need, expectancy and reinforcement theories of motivation. Kroon says:

It is based on the assumption that people need to take part in the decisions affecting their work. Such involvement may lead to the setting of challenging objectives with greater acceptance and commitment to accomplish the stated objectives' (Kroon, 1995:13).

2.6.2.1 Some African Examples on Participation

To date most examples of participation in Africa have been of the representative type. Some attempts are, however, being made for the direct type of representation (Blunt & Jones 1992 : 169). The latter, direct participation refers to situations in which workers participate personally in decision making. They present their own views in a context that grants them equal power to other participants and actively

contribute to decision making by speaking for themselves. Indirect participation, on the other hand, involves participation through representation. It consists of elected worker representatives from lower levels of the organisation who serve on decision making or advisory committees at higher levels in the organisation, and they, therefore, represent the views of their constituents (Blunt & Jones, 1992 :169).

Algeria is said to have had more experience than any other African country with worker participation, or workers' self-management the term they use there (Nellis (1983); (in Blunt & Jones, 1992). This worker participation was one of the major products of the Algerian revolution and it began with independence in the summer of 1962. The self-management committees were accepted with enthusiasm in Algeria because the workers saw them as a means of providing them with a livelihood; the workers were and still are, deeply immersed in an everyday struggle for material survival where the next job or the next wage packet becomes the limit of their horizon. Their attitude to self-management is radically circumscribed by this context. They tend to visualise their job in an instrumental fashion, according to the equation work equals money and security' (Clegg (1971:172 -3); (in Blunt & Jones, 1992). Clegg further argues that the initial success of these committees was due to material necessity.

Workers were provided with financial incentives to participate but, with only a few exceptions, these incentives were never paid and by 1964, the system of self-management committees began to break down. This Algerian experience shows that the workers understood the system but when they saw that it could not provide for their expectations, the satisfaction of basic needs, they quickly lost interest.

Indirect participation through workers' committees was also introduced in Tanzania by President Julius Nyerere in 1964. Positive results noted as a result of the

participative method were, higher levels of output, which generated extra income for the workers involved, improved cooperation between workers, and reduced levels of absenteeism. There was nothing in the results to suggest that direct worker participation was not as applicable in developing countries as it was in more developed countries. Social and cultural differences, however, dictate locally developed approaches rather than uniformly applied imported solutions : Kanawaty & Thorsrud (1981) p. 273 (in Blunt & Jones, 1992).

2.7 SUMMARY

This chapter has discussed management theories, motivation theories, and the African management philosophy and culture. Only the theories and philosophies relevant to the study and particularly those which have been the subject of investigation in Africa have been discussed. The management theories covered in this section include the classical theories, modern theories (Mintzberg, 1973; 1989), and theories by popular writers such as Drucker (1974, 1977, 1980); Barnard (1938); Stewart (1967; 1979; 1989) and others. These theories are relevant to the present study because they cover the various levels of the development of management. Management practices today are based on management theories developed over the years (O'Donnell & Weirich, 1992). The present study is about management attributes and it also draws from the currently accepted theories. As the location of the study is an African country, the influence of the African philosophy and culture on management are discussed in this section. Cultural practices influence enterprises within their environment. These may also manifest themselves on the management approaches of the companies studied.

The next chapter, reviews the literature on previous studies on excellence. Popular authors on this topic are Peters and Waterman (1982,) Peters (1992), Ball &

Asbury (1989), Ouchi (1981), and Porter (1990). The reviews of literature in both the present chapter and the next one are useful in the discussion of the results of the study, covered in Chapter Six.

CHAPTER 3

LITERATURE SURVEY: EXCELLENCE IN WESTERN COUNTRIES

3.1 INTRODUCTION

In surveying the literature for review in this chapter, the researcher looked at the contributions of those authors who have made significant findings about the attributes of excellent companies. The literature surveyed here is of two types:

- a. that of theorists who have defined excellent companies;
- b. that of researchers who have studied the most successful companies and analysed their attributes.

The latter type of literature is by authors such as Peters and Waterman (1982), Ouchi (1981), Robson (1986), and Ball and Asbury (1989). The survey of literature reveals what excellence is from the point of view of both types of author. This will provide a basis for noting whether there are any commonalities with those attributes discovered in excellent companies in Zimbabwe. Seeing that there is no literature on excellence in Zimbabwe, the literature reviewed here is that of excellent companies of the West, Japan, and South Africa.

MacDonald (1990), conducted a study entitled "Managing After the Revolution: Zimbabwe's Managers in their own words." This study focused on the way in which managers coped with the rapid transition in the late 1970's and early 1980's and how managing in post independence Zimbabwe differs from managing in UDI Rhodesia".

MacDonald's study is not concerned with excellence. However, it provides valuable insights into management in general with regard to Zimbabwe.

3.1.1 Why Search for Excellence?

In recent years, American businessmen have expressed the need for improved methods of management. The search for such improvements has been brought about by rapid changes and challenges in the environment confronting the business community. Numerous businesses are experiencing an increased erosion of their traditional market shares from both foreign and domestic competition. Profit margins have decreased because of these and other factors (Cosier and Dalton, 1986). It is for this reason that academics and others in America have sought innovative management approaches in an attempt to show the way these businesses can regain lost markets and profit margins to lay a good foundation for future development (Cosier and Dalton, 1986). This study on excellent companies in Zimbabwe is also likely to offer the country's businesses some benefits similar to those sought by American studies.

3.1.2 Approaches to Meet the Challenge

A number of responses to meet the challenge have been proposed by some researchers and authors. *In Search of Excellence: Lessons from America's Best-Run Companies*, by Peters and Waterman (1982), and the Japanese style of management discussed by Ouchi (1981) have been the most popular approaches. Each of the approaches offered contains prescriptions and principles that are supposed to improve organisational performance. In this study, the approaches termed attributes are discussed individually and synthesised in the section below.

3.2 THE ATTRIBUTES OF EXCELLENT COMPANIES

The attributes of the excellent companies as revealed by the literature reviewed in this chapter cluster into the three basic theoretical themes: strategy, culture, and structure.

Strategy is a systematic action determining the allocation of resources to achieve competitive advantage (O' Donnel and Weihrich, 1992; Hickman and Silva, 1988). Organisational structure, however, consists of authority/responsibility relationships (O'Donnel and Weihrich, 1992). Culture, on the other hand, as defined by Hobbs (1987 : 87)," is the total pattern of human behaviour composed of customs, beliefs, social norms, and material traits that form the tradition of a group of individuals - that is transmitted to succeeding generations through language, symbols, thought, and action - what a company does".

Benedict (1934) in *Patterns of Culture* defines culture as "the standards and norms that bind men together in their standards and ideas they have in common". Peters and Waterman (1982), in their study *In Search of Excellence* highlighted several examples such as "skunk works" (informal enclaves of people and money that function outside the confines of the corporate bureaucracy), "entrepreneurial champions" those who become heroes to be emulated by other creative members of the organisations.

The three factors: strategy, culture, and structure properly blended together facilitate the achievement of an enterprise's objectives. Hickman and Silva (1988), define culture as the careful attention to organisational and people needs..

3.3 ATTRIBUTES PERTAINING TO STRATEGY

3.3.1 The Importance of a Philosophy

A philosophy is a value system: the shared values and code of ethics. It helps top management in directing the organisation. It is also used by middle and junior management to monitor the behaviour of the workers under them (Robson, 1986).

3.3.2 A Clear Philosophy and a Clear Mission Statement

Robson (1986) in *A Journey Towards Excellence*, gives some theories on how companies can become excellent. He states that excellence is within the reach of any company provided it does the things that are essential for the achievement of such success.

According to Robson (1986), the most important thing in the pursuit of excellence in a company and without which it is not worthwhile to start is the commitment of top management. Most of what happens in a company is a result of management action. The successful implementation of anything, therefore, needs the support of top management. This calls for a clear mission statement, the purpose for which the enterprise is established.

In the journey to excellence, management have to be clear about the goals they want to achieve. This is also important for employees because they have a part to play in the organisation. The objective should be communicated by management. This should be done in practical terms and word pictures and not in theoretical abstractions. Top management should be the role model and do things as they would want others to do. This implies that management should lead by example. They should always display commitment (Robson, 1986). This author also stresses

the importance of faith in the whole process of implementing the programme. Management ought to have faith in the model, faith in their ability and faith in their employees to achieve excellence.

The mission statement of the successful companies were found to be concise and clear. A clear and unambiguous statement of what a company or a person seeks to accomplish is perhaps the most critical building block (Hobbs, 1987). Only after the central thrust and focal point of an enterprise are clearly laid down can other things fall into a coherent framework (Hobbs, 1987). A clear statement can easily be understood by the members of the organisation, particularly those in key positions. Related to a clear mission statement is the concept of well defined and clearly articulated performance objectives.

Hobbs (1987), in his study of fourteen successful American companies, found that extensive planning and clearly defined financial objectives were central to all the corporations. They were aware that planning is an important formula for success. All operations from research and development and product development to personnel realignments, and marketing research and promotional campaigns were involved in this role. The key liquidity, profitability, and leverage ratios tended to fluctuate within a narrow range, a reflection that the companies had a stable and steady purpose ingrained in them (Hobbs, 1987:135).

In line with extensive planning and well articulated financial goals, the fourteen corporations monitored their organisational activities intensely. Daily operations were constantly monitored and yet they were never viewed as "Big Brother" surveillance by personnel; they saw the exercise as the necessary feed forward - feedback procedure. Also, despite these controls there was still latitude for entrepreneurial activity among the employees (Hobbs, 1987).

3.3.3 Keeping to the Base

Most successful companies remain in the business they know best. In the words of Peters and Waterman (1982), these companies "stick to the knitting." Advantages that accrue to running the business with which one is acquainted include knowledge and experience. These qualities facilitate the development of a business. Excellent companies may diversify but they have been found to stick to the central base of a particular business line. Montgomery (1987), also states that companies that succeed through acquisitions of other companies tend to make related acquisitions. These companies manage the fundamentals. They identify their talents and exploit them. They sharpen their skills in those areas and measure their results in a simple but accurate manner (Ball and Asbury, 1989). The fourteen most successful American corporations studied by Hobbs (1987) were found to have a focus from which they do not allow to be cluttered or fractionated. For example, since its founding in 1916, Kellogg's main expertise has been in ready-to-eat cereals - a focus that was only recently extended to include a very small slice of other convenience foods (Hobbs, 1987:134).

Most of these companies identified a niche in which to participate and they followed that speciality. This concentration in one area enables these companies to solve problems, meet challenges and further develop the skills of all the employees from the bottom to the top. The corporations, then become the best in a particular industry segment (Hobbs, 1987). This strategy of a concentrated focus is a long established concept of specialisation first espoused by Adam Smith in *A Wealth of Nations*. According to Hobbs (1987), this is a concept often overlooked by many enterprises. Excessive diversification can be dangerous and unprofitable.

If such companies diversify at all, the strategy will tend to be well defined. The diversification activity in such companies tends to be heavily limited in extent. Most

of these companies have no interest at all in this direction. Not only should companies striving for excellence remain in the business they know well, but they should also apply management principles with which they are well acquainted.

Larson (1987), discovered that "some Canadian companies have been successful through the application of tried and true principles of management". He states that there are three principles followed by management and these are : "strategic direction", "vision", and "teamwork".

This implies effective leadership and it involves:

- (1) knowing where one is;
- (2) knowing where one is going; and
- (3) knowing how one is going to get from here to there.

(Larson, 1987:38-39)

3.3.4 Pressure and Challenge

According to Porter (1990), companies gain advantage against the world's best competitors because of pressure and challenge; they benefit from having strong domestic rivals, aggressive home based suppliers, and demanding local customers. Porter (1990), further asserts that nations succeed in particular industries because their home environment is the most forward looking, dynamic and challenging. Every successful company will employ its own particular strategy, the underlying method of operating is however, the same (Porter, 1990).

Once a company has achieved competitive advantage, it can only sustain it through persistent competition. Should a company fail to do so, competitors overtake it. Any advantage can be imitated, for example, the Koreans imitated their Japanese counterpart television and V.C.R. makers (Porter, 1990).

Excellent companies do not rest on their laurels; they keep on improving the skills they have got to make sure that they are not overtaken by competitors. Ultimately, the only way to sustain a competitive advantage is to upgrade it - to move to more sophisticated types. This is precisely what Japanese automakers have done. They initially penetrated foreign markets with small, inexpensive compact cars of adequate quality and competed on the basis of lower labor costs. Even while their labor-cost advantage persisted, however, the Japanese companies were upgrading. They invested aggressively to build large modern plants to reap economies of scale. Then they became innovators in process technology, pioneering just-in-time production and a host of other quality and productivity practices. These process improvements led to better product quality, better repair records, and better customer-satisfaction ratings than foreign competitors had. Most recently, Japanese automakers have advanced to the vanguard of product technology and are introducing new, premium brand names to compete with the world's most prestigious passenger cars (Porter, 1990).

The example of the Japanese automakers also illustrates two additional prerequisites for sustaining competitive advantage. Firstly, a company must make a global strategy. It must sell its product worldwide, under its own brand name, through international channels that it controls. A truly global strategy may even require the company to locate production or R&D facilities in other nations to take advantage of lower wage rates, to gain or improve market access, or to take advantage of foreign technology.

Secondly, creating more sustainable advantages often means that a company must make its existing advantage obsolete - even while it is still an advantage. Japanese auto companies recognised this; either they would make their advantage obsolete, or a competitor would do it for them (Porter, 1990:75).

Innovation and change are inextricably tied together as can be seen from the examples discussed above. Change is, however, difficult for big and successful companies; strong forces avoid and defeat it. Historical approaches become "institutionalised in standard operating procedures and management controls" (Porter, 1990). Companies, therefore, need to guard against these counter productive and traditional practices if they are to be successful.

Nordstrom and Kleiner (1990), on the other hand, emphasise that for companies to succeed, they need managers who understand the international market. The company may not be trading internationally but the fact that it competes with multinational companies in its local markets makes it imperative to know more about its competitors' strategies. Should the company want to enter international markets, the skills needed by international managers include the ability to see future directions for the company and the knowledge of foreign market opportunities. The company also needs to adjust the product to the target foreign market. BMW for example, was able to sell 6 000 cars in Japan in 1988 because it could adjust; whereas Detroit managed to sell only 1 300 cars. Coca Cola holds 60% share of the soft drinks market in Japan because they have adjusted to the Japanese preferences and practices (Nordstrom and Kleiner, 1990). The managers of companies which are entering international markets are advised to use their common sense and hire marketing people who live in and understand the values and sociology of the target market (Nordstrom and Kleiner, 1990).

The other attributes of excellence as identified by Alio and Pattern (1991), are market share, market growth, investment intensity, productivity and quality. These authors, in discussing about their findings, focused mainly on the service industries arguing that these industries now dominate the U.S. economy. In their survey the authors applied economic modeling to a sample of fifty businesses in the service industry, and measured "excellence" in either return on investment (ROI) or return

on sales (ROS). They found five key indicators for the consistently high-performing service business. The indicators were: market share, market growth, investment intensity, productivity, and quality.

3.3.5 Market Share

Alio & Pattern (1991) found that "business that scrambled for the largest share were more profitable." Companies with a high share of the market they served, say 60 percent plus, averaged a 55 percent pre-tax, pre-interest return on investment (ROI), while businesses with low market share (32 percent) averaged 25 percent return on investment. Finding the right market segment was discovered to be the most important factor propelling the company into the leadership position. High relative market share is sometimes the outcome of economies of scale. But it may also result from greater bargaining power with suppliers, hence lower costs. Bargaining power with customers may also increase with market share since they may have fewer alternative sources of supply. Greater customer loyalty and thus lower sensitivity to price - may be another benefit (Alio and Pattern, 1991:13).

Market share can therefore be increased, among other things, by constant communication and good relations with both suppliers and customers. Customers are more likely to be loyal to the business which shows concern for them by bargaining with them. This is also true with suppliers.

3.3.6 Market Growth

In their study Alio and Pattern (1991), found that businesses operating in a market with a high-growth rate (more than 11 percent), gained an average 44 percent ROI, whereas those operating in low-growth markets dropped by 15 percentage points. The competitor is easier "to outdistance in a growth market" because "the

competition doesn't always notice that you are gaining - they are much too busy coping with their own growth, and all the distractions inherent in pioneering new territory. Also, products in high demand are less price sensitive" (Alio and Pattern, 1991:13).

3.3.7 Investment Intensity

Alio and Pattern (1991), state that high investment results in low return. When investment as a proportion of sales is low, performance will be high. In the sample studied by the two authors, Service industries with low investment per sales less than 25 percent of investment dollar of revenue, gained an average of 56 percent ROI. The industries with high investment (more than 50 percent) gained far less, getting an average of 15 percent ROI. Service businesses have been found to have lower ratios of working capital to sales than manufacturing business but their fixed asset intensity tended to fall into two categories as follows: (i) those which need more than a 60 percent ratio of plant and equipment to sales have less profitability than (ii) those which require less than 35 percent ratio of plant and equipment to sales. Working capital ratios also have been found to have a smaller but substantial influence on profitability. As an example, nursing homes return less ROI than software houses. Fixed assets in any business need to be minimised because "heavy investment can act as a barrier to exiting an unprofitable business, further depressing profits" (Alio and Pattern, 1991).

3.3.8 Productivity

Concerning productivity as an attribute of success, the value added is key. This concept is based on the fact that more is always better whether it is expressed in terms of labour productivity (value-added per employee), or investment productivity (value added per investment). Value added is a measure of a "firm's

ability to convert a firm's purchased raw materials into products or services that can be marketed at a good price" (Alio and Pattern, 1991).

It has been found that businesses with a high value-added per investment scored 65 percent ROI as an average. However, those with lower value-added per investment, scored 50 percentage points lower. This is not a new principle but the data are interesting (Alio and Pattern, 1991). Combining high value added to sales with low investment to sales results in the potential of the best ROI payoff (Alio and Pattern, 1991). Productivity as discussed here is indicative of the efficient use of resources. This undoubtedly results in high profitability.

Commenting on the performance of British companies Charles Handy, (1989; 1991); states that although the output of manufacturing industries in the U.K. has declined to 2.4% annually since 1979, output per worker has been growing at 3%. This increase in labour productivity he says, is the result of the recession, which led to unemployment and the closing of low-productivity factories. Improvements in technology should help further sustain increases in labour productivity. The government's stimulation of demand through tax cuts results in the increase of output and productivity.

Handy (1989), however, acknowledges that the U.K. trails behind the U.S., Japan, Germany, and France in output per manufacturing employee and has substantial room for labour productivity improvement. The U.S. maintains a productivity edge in many industries because of the larger scale of its output, while Germany may have an advantage because of its focus on high quality, technically sophisticated equipment. Japan combines these advantages in some industries.

The assertion by Handy (1989), that productivity per worker in the U.K. has been growing because of the recession implies that companies do well where there is

competition. Inefficient companies are eliminated and those which remain compete relentlessly to survive. It is the best resources which are employed when there is competition.

3.3.9 Achieving Corporate Excellence Through Career Development

Gilley and Moore (1986), state that many organisations that seek excellence have made career development an important part of their human resource domains. Career development helps employees to analyse their abilities and interests to better match their personal needs for growth and development with the needs of the organisation (Le Van; Mathys and Drehmer, 1983). Career development is regarded as a tool with which management can increase productivity and improve employee attitudes toward work in order to develop worker satisfaction.

There are two alternatives generally employed in career development. The first one consists of the employment of career development specialists and the second one involves the use of managers and supervisors. The latter method appeals more to many organisations because it is simple and cheap. (Gilley and Moore, 1986) The supervisor's impact on a worker's career is of far greater importance than any other organisational factor (Gilley and Moore, 1986).

Managers and supervisors bring many advantages in career counseling because they:

1. Benefit from practical work experience;
2. Can make realistic appraisals of organisational opportunities;
3. Can use information from past performance evaluations to make realistic suggestions concerning career planning.

4. Can evaluate external economic opportunities pertaining the trade
5. Have experienced similar career decisions, and can be empathetic toward the employee (Gilley and Moore, 1986 : 51).

Performance problems are generally career related. Employees often feel stagnated or overlooked and this leads to job dissatisfaction, stress, and lower productivity (Gilley and Moore, 1986).

Complicating this situation further, many managers are reluctant to talk to employees about their performance problems; they ignore the problem in the hope that the situation will correct itself. Managers are, however, accountable for subordinates who do not perform up to their full potential and or fail to meet expectations (Gilley and Moore, 1986; Lee, 1994).

Many managers also feel inadequate to counsel because they lack formal training in psychology and counseling. Some managers get promoted to positions requiring interpersonal skills because of their technical abilities. As a result when confronted with a problem many of such managers fail to address it correctly (Gilley and Moore, 1986).

A number of advantages such as the reduction of performance problems for both subordinate and supervisor, providing a more systematic activity for the organisation, and the promotion of overall effectiveness through a more effective allocation of resources and greater loyalty among employees have been known to accrue to career development (Gilley and Moore, 1986).

Gilley and Moore (1986), not only write about the importance of career development, but they also make suggestions on how to implement the program.

These authors have put forward 10 interpersonal techniques that can be adopted to help improve the abilities needed in career counseling. They further state, however, that before implementation takes place, a climate to facilitate the implementation should be provided. The seven techniques to provide a climate and the 10 interpersonal techniques as suggested by Gilley and Moore (1986) are listed below.

3.3.9.1 Seven Techniques For Providing Career Development

1. Develop a knowledge of occupational information and career source material.
2. Develop an understanding of the different career theories and their application.
3. Enroll in college classes related to counseling theories, human relation and counseling techniques.
4. Subscribe to professional journals that publish articles regarding career.
5. Understand the elements of an effective relationship and how to build them.
6. Develop good listening and questioning skills.
7. Learn to respect the confidentiality of employees.

In addition to the technique described above, managers should check levels of agreement and understanding by the participants to ensure that:

- a. Participation is emphasised.

- b. Appraisal is regular.
- c. Employees are rewarded through the payment of a bonus.

TABLE 3.1: TEN TECHNIQUES AND GOALS FOR EFFECTIVE CAREER ENHANCEMENT BY SUPERVISORS

APPROACH	GOAL
1. Active Listening	Hearing and clearly understanding what is being said, by concentrated involvement in the communication process with the employee.
2. Reflecting	Mirroring the subordinate's content with an estimate stating what his/her feelings and attitudes are believed to be.
3. Paraphrasing	Demonstrating an understanding of a worker's ideas by stating them in your words.
4. Clarifying	getting an employee elaboration on feelings or attitudes to benefit understanding.
5. Interpreting	Dealing with cause and feeling relationships apparent from the supervisor's own knowledge.
6. Questioning	Using inquiry to help pull together the interaction.
7. Silence	Intentional pauses that help in the understanding of what is being said
8. Encouraging	Supportive statements or gestures that let the employee know that the supervisor can accept or empathize with his approach.
9. Tentative Analysis	Partial conclusion based on initial public testing of one idea as expressed by the worker.
10. Summarising	Tentative overall conclusion of what has transpired in the interaction, to check levels of agreement and understanding by the participants.

Hobbs (1987), also mentions a culture of career development as prevalent among the fourteen companies he studied. Some examples, such as Smith Kline Beckman, Lilly, and Deluxe Check, utilise most of their efforts in developing various training seminars and company wide programs for all levels of employees (Hobbs, 1987).

Other ideas on achieving excellence which are related to career development are the ones raised by Van Wyk (1986), managing director of Iscor. He says that Iscor has a management philosophy which has put it on the road to excellence. The company uses Management by Objectives (MBO) to improve the performance of its managers. The successful application of management by objectives is dependent upon four fundamental requirements as follows:-

1. The enterprise should have well developed management systems for all of its activities. Incumbents must be trained in MBO in spite of their previous knowledge.
2. The prerequisite for proper planning is participation.
3. There should be good quality control to ensure that customers' requirements are met.
4. Rhetoric is not enough. Specific action must be taken when plans have been made.

MBO meetings are held regularly at Iscor by each manager and members of his team to make sure that the action needed to meet the standards laid down is effectively taken (van Wyk, 1986).

The company has a philosophy which says, "Today's results are better than yesterday's, but not as good as those that will be obtained tomorrow."

Van Wyk (1986), does not, however, elaborate on the points (1 - 4) enumerated above to explain precisely how the four fundamental requirements are implemented in his company.

3.4 ATTRIBUTES PERTAINING TO CULTURE

3.4.1 Welcoming Change and Encouraging Innovation

The internal organisational workings of each of these enterprises was found to be tight, active, and replete with an enthusiasm that spreads and provides its own impetus to improve product and service (Hobbs, 1987 : 137).

Ball and Asbury (1989), state as one of the attributes of excellent companies that they welcome change and encourage innovation. This implies that excellent companies are flexible in their approach. They adjust to environmental changes and they do not try to change environments to suit them. Through this, it can be clearly understood that excellent companies try as much as possible to avoid conflict. It is true that organisations failing to adapt to changes in a changing world face extinction (Gamache, 1984). Flexible companies also tend to be more eager to adopt new ideas.

Peters and Waterman (1982), also confirm the above mentioned attribute in that they found that excellent companies have innovative management. Such companies are good at producing new products and they change with the changing needs of customers. They are good at the basics and they work hard to keep things simple. (Peters and Waterman, 1982) From what Peters and Waterman state, it is evident that excellent companies are proactive rather than reactive. Furthermore, these companies make things simple in a complicated world.

3.4.2 Commitment to Quality of Products and Service

The South African excellent companies have been found to be committed to quality. Ball and Asbury (1989), term this concept "doing things properly". This is an ingredient of quality in the product or service. The overall result of this is customer satisfaction. Customers need quality and professionalism (Ball and Asbury, 1989). This attribute enables the companies to retain their customers. Customers cannot be lost to competitors if they get quality in the product or service supplied them.

The key principle here is that the best service/product always wins. Quality has become double edged these days. Simply paying more attention to specifications is not enough.

Firstly, it means delivering to the customer what he needs and perceives as being of quality. Secondly, it means watching very carefully what the competitor does. "Quality" alone does not ensure success; relative quality is what is most important (Alio & Pattern, 1991).

The meaning of quality to a company should be as is perceived by the customer (Garvin, 1990). Quality benefits both the customer and the organisation. The customer benefits through the reliability, serviceability, and adaptability of the product and the organisation benefits through getting profits. Quality products or services are not returned to the company for redoing and that results in big savings, whereas if products are returned, costs to the company are high. The U.S. corporations that are most profitable also emphasise product and service quality (Peters & Waterman, 1982; Shetty, 1987).

Good workmanship is one of the key principles at Kwik Fit one of the successful companies studied by Clutterbuck and Kernaghan (1991). Every member of staff

is expected to know what he must do. Employees are expected to do things right and do them right the first time. This comes about through the training of employees (Clutterbuck & Kernaghan, 1991). Getting good service from a company involves everybody in the company from the telephonist - who is often the first point of contact - to the Chairman. Service includes every one in the payroll according to Kwik Fit (Clutterbuck & Kernaghan, 1991). Receptionists, for example, need to be polite to all people who need access to the company whether it be by phone or through a personal visit.

Excellent companies are committed to providing outstanding products and services to their customers and they dominate their competitors (Robson, 1986). The quality of products and services has been identified by many researchers to be one of the key attributes of excellence. This is so because customers want to get the highest value for their money (Robson, 1986; Garvin, 1990; Ball and Asbury, 1989). Value like beauty, is in the eye of the beholder. The value of a product or service lies with the person receiving it, not the customer, not the person providing it (Chaddock, 1995).

3.4.3 Creation of a Strong Culture for Success

Hickman and Silva (1988) also, in addition to identifying the quality of products and services as the attributes of excellent companies state that excellent companies reward their employees, dominate in a defined market, and progress toward growth and profit goals. The real race for excellence is the one the company runs against itself (Hickman and Silva, 1988). This means that the company has to set its own standards and it should not rely on the standards set by competitors.

A strong culture is important for success. The table below shows three components necessary for the creation of a strong culture as suggested by Hickman and Silva (1988:70).

TABLE 3-2: COMPONENTS FOR THE CREATION OF A STRONG CULTURE

CULTURE COMPONENT	ACTION ONE MUST TAKE
Commitment	Instill commitment to a common philosophy and purpose, recognising that employee commitment to a corporate philosophy must coincide with both individual and collective interests.
Competence	Develop and reward competence in key areas, keeping in mind that you will foster greater competence focusing on one or two key skills at a time rather than by addressing a host of skills at once.
Consistency	Consistently perpetuate commitment and competency by attracting, developing, and keeping the right people.

As a strategic approach, companies need to have better products to gain advantage over competitors, and they should innovate to satisfy customer needs (Hickman and Silva, 1988; Porter, 1990; Roschild, 1983).

Culture and strategy have to be supplemented by the skills of the chief executives. There are six New Age Skills which have been identified by Hickman and Silva (1988: 148-148), and which are also necessary for chief executives to possess if the organisations they lead are to achieve excellence. The six types of skills are:

1. **Creative insight:** This means that the chief executives should ask the right questions so that they are enabled to create successful strategies. It is through this quality that the chief executive discovers advantages, and strengths that others may not be able to see. Without insightful executives, organisations are led to stagnation rather than excellence (Hickman and Silva, 1988; Barnard, 1938).
2. **Sensitivity** enables the executive to look inside another person in order to understand that person's needs and expectations. That kind of ones own. It is the sensitive executives who motivate their people in the most effective way (Hickman and Silva, 1988:147-148).
3. **Vision** is the pivotal skill of all the New Age skills, it enables executives to position their organisations to make the most of impending changes. They create the future and are proactive rather than reactive.
4. **Versatility**, the fourth skill required of chief executives, makes them to learn to adapt to any situation and this solves many problems. Executives who are not versatile become set in their ways, get isolated and cannot prosper in this changing world. Versatility is however, not complete without focus.
5. **Focus**, results in successful, lasting, and profitable change. It calls for undivided attention to the details that have to change. It is this skill which builds competence, and without it executives cannot successfully exploit change.
6. **Patience** produces staying power; it helps the executives to employ the other skills at the right time and in the right combination and proportion. It is a key ingredient in lasting excellence.

3.4.4 Maintenance of Good Relations with Stakeholders

Successful companies manage their stakeholders well. Their stakeholders consist of suppliers, employees, bankers, and trade unions. The companies realise that they do well in an atmosphere of harmony and supportiveness. There should be no conflict of any kind with any group of stakeholders (Ball and Asbury, 1989). It is easy for a company to expand its market share in a friendly environment. There has to be the right kind of leadership for this to be achieved effectively.

3.4.5 Right Kind of Leadership

Researching about South African excellent companies, Ball and Asbury (1989), found that the South African context requires the kind of leadership skills different from that of British, European, or American companies. Because of some cultural differences and other environmental differences, the leadership of the companies in South Africa has to be unique and suitable for the South African setting. This is likely to be true for all the other cultures. There is more to managing than the following of management principles. Acquaintance with the culture in which the company is established is one of the major factors to be considered in managing. In the passage below, Ball and Asbury (1989), discuss some concepts of leadership which are worthy noting:

The concept of leadership has something of a mystical ring to it. In the course of our research, we asked countless friends and colleagues what they believed to be the factors behind super performance. Nine times out of ten their responses could be summed up in one word: leadership. We would agree, in the sense that leadership is about mastering your corporate destiny; giving the lady what she wants; liberating human potential; ringing in the new; doing what comes logically; doing it properly; moving beyond 15-man rugby; and building strong cultures.

So the chances are that if you ask someone why Pick 'n Pay, Sun International, Altech or Toyota are successful, they will tell you it's because of Raymond Ackerman, Sol Kezner, Bill Venter or Albert Wessels.

What we have tried to do in this chapter is to get behind the leadership concept as it operates in South Africa. To set some of the practical lessons we have learnt from business leaders of this calibre - the sort of things they do to put their organisations into the super performer league and the sort of people they are.

We will show that leaders drive their organisations; they are intrepid inspectors, relying as much on inspection as expectation; they fire up people with excitement; they get their hands grubby down at the coal face; they blaze the trail in sniffing out business opportunities; they push their people like hell; they focus people's attention on what they want; they unite the organisation around a vision of the future; they make meaning; they communicate constantly; they draw people around them.

We have tried to draw a distinction between the things they do and the people they are. The sort of people they are is really a deduction from the sorts of things they do. We will show that they are strong charactered; ambitious, experts in their field; that they gravitate towards people; they are obsessive; they have a bold attitude to risk and most importantly, we believe, they know how to touch both the heart and the head (Ball and Asbury, 1989:185-186).

The above extracts give a description of the qualities of leaders of super performers. Ball and Asbury (1989) have also found that the leaders of excellent companies drive their organisations. In an interview with Mike Benn, Willards Managing Director confirmed this as follows:

It's bullshit that anyone believes you can run a company on a laissez-faire, open ended approach. A company must be driven - every successful company is driven ... the guy at the top must get in there and set the energy level and the direction. He must demand performance (Ball and Asbury, 1989:186).

When the concepts of participative management were first introduced many managers misunderstood them and applied them incorrectly. It was interpreted as

allowing people to get down and do their own things. People should be involved in decision making but managers should not abdicate the "responsibility for setting the pace and tone of the organisation" (Ball and Asbury, 1989).

Hickman and Silva (1988), share the same view as Ball and Asbury (1989). It is leaders or individuals, not organisations that create excellence. It is those leaders who have developed specific skills and who have created organisational performance with their skills, who lead others along the pathway to excellence (Hickman and Silva, 1988).

An attribute very akin to leadership is that one espoused by Wallace (1988), namely, commitment. He notes that excellence in a company stems from excellent managers who emphasise five key managerial points of commitment to customer, people, tasks, the organisation and to self. By commitment to task Wallace means that management should be dedicated to achieving the tasks set by the organisation. Commitment to the organisation is critical to the organisation's very survival. The excellent companies studied by Wallace, the excellent manager always had a high score in this area. This manager always knew the mission of the organisation, discouraged destructive comments about the organisation and, was in general a strong advocate of the organisation and its value system (Wallace, 1988:16).

Finally, commitment to self refers to the manager who always has a high presentation of himself and has a reputation for standing up for his beliefs. Such a manager takes responsibility and ownership for his decisions. He is the risk taker of the organisation and not a guardian of the status quo (Wallace, 1988). Wallace also mentions that there should be a balance in these five keys, emphasizing that not one commitment holds precedence over another. Managers should work hard to keep the balance.

Hobbs (1987), expresses a similar view about leadership; he identified the attributes of a forceful visionary and notably influential chief executive officers as among the most common for excellent companies. Succession into positions at or near the top in most of these companies was well planned.

3.4.6 Staffing and Human Resources

The other essential factor according to Robson (1986), relates to good management skills and competence in the staffing of their organisations. Mistakes in the selection of employees can be costly and only people with proven skills should be promoted. Excellence requires that management, from top to bottom be involved in training and development of employees. People should be helped to improve in their weak areas and further develop their strengths (Robson, 1986). This is a culture appropriate for the growth and success of a company. The discussion below focuses on such attributes.

The other common characteristic among these companies was that they had a forceful visionary leader who had a creative foresight and provided stimulus and left a legacy in each enterprise (Hobbs, 1987; Thompson, 1984). This confirms the generally accepted idea that the leader of an organisation sets the tone for that organisation and gives it a personality.

Effective managerial and executive programmes are well in place in some of these companies and promotion from within is the normal practice. Recruitment of individuals from outside is rare particularly at the chief executive level and chief operations officers slots. In some organisations this would be viewed as faulty inbreeding and yet in these corporations there was no evidence to suggest that the promotions from within resulted in selections which were mediocre (Hobbs, 1987; Thompson, 1984; *Business Week*, 27 January 1973:48-54). This attribute

facilitates the sharpening of skills to enhance the expertise found within these corporations. If people are promoted from within, two objectives of motivating the work force and that of doing things properly are often achieved.

3.4.7 A Culture of Communication

These companies are very interested in hearing the views of their employees. They pass on clear messages from senior levels. They have upward, downward, and lateral communication. Downward communication is essential if a company wants to know what is happening within it. Department meetings are designed to fill this need. The frequency of such meetings ranges from daily (Japanese way) to monthly, depending upon the situation (Robson, 1986). A company should not depend on grapevine for its information but it should institutionalise an organised and regular procedure.

Upward communication is also important for employees to give feedback up the line. Generally, the companies use opinion surveys to collect information from staff on a regular basis. Through these surveys, employees are encouraged to suggest any improvements on the company. Suggestion schemes have been proven to be useful. Toyota claims that at least 25% of its profit annually comes from these ideas (Robson, 1986). Such suggestions are usually given to top management through a suggestion box. There is also a communication system which enables staff who feel that they have been treated badly to report the matter to senior management. This procedure gives all the employees a feeling that they have a right to be treated fairly according to the stated philosophy of the company (Robson, 1986).

In the same vein Clutterbuck and Kernaghan (1991), states that communication is essential for a company to succeed in achieving its objectives of satisfying

customers. Successful companies avoid the NETMA attitude (nobody ever tells me anything) (Clutterbuck and Kernaghan, 1991).

With the present level of sophistication in organizations, information must flow faster than ever before. Should information flow slower than it should, it can result in production stoppages and this can be very costly to the enterprise. Problems need to be communicated quickly for corrective action. There is a need for managers to know in order to make good decisions. Communication should flow in various directions, downwards, upwards, and crosswise. Traditionally, downward communication was emphasized. This approach, however, often results into a conflict within the organisation (Kreitner 1983; Fulmer, 1988; O' Donnell & Wehrich, 1992).

3.4.8 Commitment to Customers

Concerning commitment to customers, Wallace stresses that managers and all their employees need to know who their customers are. This implies what the customers need in terms of the quality of service and product. Politeness, by everyone in the company to customers is referred to by Wallace (1988) as one of the most important attributes.

Customers always expect to get the value for the money they pay for a service or product. According to Clutterbuck and Kernaghan (1991), very often arguments by customers with service companies are over bills. When quotations exceed the bill a customer has to pay, there is always a conflict. Successful companies offer a hassle free service by trying to be accurate in what they quote the customer and providing a good quality service which will give satisfaction (Clutterbuck and Kernaghan 1991).

Customers ought to come first in business because if there are no customers there is no business. The company recognises a person's contribution to the company. Career paths which offer individuals the chance to develop their full potential, all the way from fitter to divisional director. Kwik Fit has an award known as Master Manager, for those staff who demonstrate that they have the Skills and drive necessary to develop their own departments and their staff's future.

Excellent companies realise that a customer needs convenience. When customers want a service or work done they do not want to travel further than they need to get it. Convenience can be achieved by the diversification of a product range or service and the establishment of new sites close to customers (Clutterbuck and Kernaghan, 1991). Kwik Fit has established 620 centres close to where customers live, work and shop. The centres offer a pleasant, comfortable and clean ambience to suit today's more affluent and aware customers. Ambience is the condition which makes a person feel comfortable and welcome, a clean warm building with toilets, and heating to provide warmth when it's cold outside. This is an example of convenience (Clutterbuck and Kernaghan, 1991).

Competitive pressure from other companies necessitates the implementation of customer care. Business in any company is dependent on customers. A company, therefore has to achieve a comparative advantage by taking care of its customers. The essence of good customer care is in knowing how to deal with customer complaints (Clutterbuck and Kernaghan, 1991). Complaints by a customer, though negative, should be viewed in a positive light as providing feedback for a company to improve.

The second essential point in customer care is getting in touch with customers to know what they think. Clutterbuck and Kernaghan (1991), gives an example of Sir John Sainsbury who tours all his stores every year to get in touch not only with his

staff but also with customers. This principle should be applied by all in the company from top management to employees on the shop floor if a company is to be regarded as a customer oriented company Clutterbuck and Kernaghan (1991).

Clutterbuck and Kernaghan (1991) reports that Mutual Life insurance asks five policy holders once a year to visit the company to tell the company what it is doing right or wrong. The customer inquisitors are given access to any documents they wish. The focus on customer needs is very important if a company wants to implement a successful customer care program. The following are factors to be included in a focus on a customer care programme, according to :

1. Hygiene factors - elements of service which people expect and which cause complaints when they are absent.
2. Readily competitive advantages - things you or your competitor does to improve customer service but which would not provide significant and valuable differentiative advantage.
3. Sustainable competitive advantage - things which your competitors will find difficult to imitate.

A study by the Boston Consulting Group of 15 European companies that had been very successful at creating innovative customer value identified four elements behind those companies: beliefs, structure, process and resource allocation. The BCG group drew up a chart as shown by the table below, to illustrate their point (Clutterbuck and Kernaghan, 1991: 39).

TABLE 3.3: BCG CHART

VALUE ELEMENT	BEST ORGANISATION	WORST ORGANISATION
Beliefs	Every commodity product can be transformed into a value business.	In commodity products we must compete on price.
Structure	Product management and sales functions centred around customer value.	Product management and sales functions specialised and autonomous.
Process	Customer needs cut through internal specialisation.	Functional procedures set up for internal efficiency.
Resource allocation	Probing for underlying customer value	Based on financial

As can be noted from the table above, successful companies make the customer their centre of focus. The other essential attribute is one discussed next, concerning the recognition and the rewarding of the contributions of employees.

Customers have been found to require the following five things:

1. that delivery must be made on time;
2. that the order must be fulfilled in every detail;
3. individual requirements must be completely understood and acted upon;
4. communication between customer and supplier must be complete;
5. convenience is important.

Concerning the attribute of satisfying the customer, Ball and Asbury (1989) term it "giving the customer what she wants". Peters and Waterman (1982), term it "closeness to the customer". Excellent companies according to these authors, take their customers seriously. Customers are not regarded as a mere passive group to be supplied with products or services but they are regarded as a lively resource providing feedback and other valuable information concerning the product or service. Most of these companies have discovered new products through their customers.

The customer wants satisfaction in the form of quality, care, and recognition. Birrel (1992), points out that the success of the Halifax Building Society of which he is managing director is attributed to the society's dedication to customer service, and a fair treatment of all customers. This helps excellent companies to retain their customers. When customers are properly treated and when they get all that they need, they have no reason to go elsewhere. Customers need to be given the freedom of articulating their concerns or suggestions to the company. It is through this kind of company attitude that customers feel that they are treated with respect and dignity.

Larson (1987), establishes a relationship between commitment to customers and strategic marketing mentioning this as one of the attributes of excellent Canadian companies. He states that strategic marketing means "getting close to the customer." The proper knowledge and understanding of the customer make the product or service fit so well that it sells itself (Larson, 1987).

3.4.9 Relations with Customers and Competitors

This elite group of organisations studied by Hobbs (1987), was found to be obsessed with the production of top quality products, superior performance, and

outstanding service. Each corporation was dedicated to seeking the maintenance of its position at the top, including the correction of minor details which lesser enterprises would neglect. Marketing strategies and promotional programmes are well articulated and in place. When an advertising expertise is not available within the corporation, outside expertise is readily sought (Hobbs, 1987). These companies work hard in order to excel. They are never satisfied with mediocrity.

Also, research and development activities are a common practice in successful companies. They are often characterised as trend setters, the innovators, and high risk-taking prospectors in their industries. Each of the fourteen corporations without exception, represents the top in its respective field (Hobbs, 1987).

With the exception of two or three, the rest of these companies deal in brand name products. Even those exceptions tend to so closely cultivate their relationships with their clients that their products become tantamount to trademarks (Hobbs, 1987).

It was a surprise to find that these companies, in spite of stiff competition in their respective markets, they are internally driven or inner - directed (Hobbs, 1987; Peters and Waterman, 1982). This is evidence that an excellent company tends to compete with itself, setting its own high standards to meet. The main thrust of this dedication to remain at the top in the companies is to satisfy the customers and to give them the value for their money.

There are other researchers such as Clutterbuck and Kernaghan (1991), who have written extensively about customer care as a vital approach of achieving excellence. Clutterbuck and Kernaghan (1991), state that companies which succeed care for their customers and this involves a series of relationships between customers, individual employees and the organization. The main focus of customer care is the customer.

The customer should feel good that he is dealing with the company as the transaction is made. The emphasis in customer care is total quality which means satisfying the customer's needs. An emphasis on quality is concerned with the right product at the right time, whereas customer care is concerned with the nature of customer relationships and the management of the interactions between the company and its customers. It is possible to have quality products but at the same time have unhappy customers, may be because the switchboard operator or other employees of the company are rude and are not helpful or the accounts department makes frequent errors (Clutterbuck and Kernaghan, 1991).

3.4.10 Autonomy and Entrepreneurship

The principles of egalitarianism or the liberation of human potential (Ouchi, 1981; Peters & Waterman, 1982; Ball and Asbury, 1989); are prevalent in excellent companies. Enterprise and creativity is encouraged not only in top management but also among all the employees. The atmosphere gives room for the experimentation of new ideas by all workers. Companies described as "type Z companies" by Ouchi (1981), a term which is an equivalent of "excellent companies", commonly develop interpersonal skills for effective group decision making. The decision making process in these companies is typically consensual, and participative. It is described as democratic (Ouchi, 1981). Workers are encouraged to apply discretion in their work and trust abounds in such companies. This attribute is related and akin to the next one below.

3.4.11 Orientation Towards Action

According to Peters and Waterman (1982), excellent companies are oriented toward action. These companies do not limit themselves to theory but they put into practice the ideas they have learnt. They do a lot of experimentation. To effect this

philosophy of a 'bias for action', excellent companies emphasise communication and are informal in their management approaches. They are not bogged down by organisational charts. The chairman of the company answers any queries which come to him from employees. Characteristic of these companies is the practice that they "get management out of the office", sometimes known as "visible management". This is also known as Management by Walking Around (Peters and Waterman, 1982). Under this system the chief executive officer moves around the firm to see what is taking place. He is not confined to the office and does not limit himself to getting written reports from his subordinates. This rich informal communication leads to more action, more experiments, more learning, and simultaneously to the ability to stay better in touch and on top of things (Peters & Waterman, 1982; Peters & Austin, 1985). It is clear that this attribute enables management to get all the relevant information in time so that situations are dealt with appropriately.

3.4.12 Productivity Through People

People are the source of quality and gain in productivity (Peters & Waterman, 1982). Excellent companies have respect for the individual. In these organisations, objectives are achieved in a friendly atmosphere (Ouchi, 1981). The companies are further regarded as clans by Ouchi (1981). Employees are treated with respect and through such an attitude and treatment by their employers the employees are able to make a meaningful contribution to their work. This view is supported by Brown (1990), who states that managers can help foster, employees' commitment by treating them as responsible adults, having faith in their judgment, and sharing more liquidity, cash, and authority with them. Brown (1990: 57), says:

Treat people as adults. Treat them as partners; treat them with dignity, treat them with respect. Treat them -- not capital spending and automation -- as the primary source of productivity gains.

These are fundamental lessons from the excellent companies' research. In other words, if one wants productivity and the financial reward that goes with it, one must treat one's workers as the most important asset. In *A Business and Its Beliefs*, Thomas J. Watson, Jr. puts it well:

IBM's philosophy is largely contained in three simple beliefs. I want to begin with what I think is the most important: our respect for the individual. This is a simple concept, but in IBM it occupies a major portion of management time. We devote more effort to it than anything else. This was bone-deep in my father. There was hardly a more pervasive theme in the excellent companies than respect for the individual.

That basic belief and assumption were omnipresent. But like so much else we have talked about, it's not any one thing --- one assumption, belief, statement, goal value, system, or program -- that makes the theme come to life. What makes it live at these companies is a plethora of structural devices, systems, styles, and values, all reinforcing one another so that the companies are truly unusual in their ability to achieve extraordinary results through ordinary people. The message goes right back to our early chapter on man and motivation. These companies give people control over their destinies; they make meaning for people. They turn the average Joe and the average Jane into winners. They let, even insist that people stick out. They accentuate the positive (Peters and Waterman, 1982:238 -239).

A view similar to this one is also shared by Robson (1986) who states that employees should have ownership of the organisation. Where ever possible, they should be given a chance of being shareholders in the organisation. Ownership can also be developed through a "high performance, high reward environment". Performance will improve if it is directly instrumental in achieving higher wages, gaining promotion, or producing an increased acceptance by company workers. Motivational theorists prefer variable payments depending on results (Robson, 1986). When people are paid according to their contribution they feel a sense of belonging to the organisation. They will tend to work hard knowing that their produce will be proportionately given back to them in the form of wages and

salaries. Unless people perceive their rewards as equitable, they will tend to reduce their effort (Mescon et al., 1981:326). The attitude of the managers towards their employees is very important in the implementation of the idea of producing through people.

The excellent manager rewards and reinforces top performance and makes people feel like winners. Above all, he gives developmental feedback, effectively analyzes performance and he encourages innovative ideas and provides opportunity for experimentation. (Wallace, 1988: 15).

There is also the concept of psychological ownership, the need for achievement; this is the need a worker brings to work. Employees should also be trusted, trained, and informed (Robson, 1986). Trust may be shown by management's willingness to delegate. Delegation means that more problems will be solved successfully because more people have been entrusted with tasks to work on. Ownership in this sense does not have to be tangible; it however, has a tremendous effect on the contribution of the employees and their commitment to the company.

3.5 ORGANISATIONAL STRUCTURE

3.5.1 A Structure to Facilitate Communication within the Workplace

Companies striving for excellence are advised to build structures to which their employees can easily relate because this is essential in facilitating the adherence to a common philosophy. Consideration should be given to the likely effects of the structure on human relationships. The suggestion offered by Robson (1986), is that companies ought to have noticeable lines of communication because people relate more easily to such structures. This, however, does not mean that entire

organisations should be built as family-sized autonomous groups. For the large organisation, it implies that small "profit" or "accountability" centres of up to 300 workers should be set up (Robson, 1986). Well arranged internal structures are the starting point of communicating with the customer.

3.5.2 Orientation Towards the Customer

According to Robson (1986), there should be a tendency towards decentralisation where ever possible for companies which want to achieve excellence and that would like to maintain such success. Centralised structures tend to focus on their own bureaucracies rather than giving full attention to the ultimate customer (Robson, 1986). "Big centralised organisations often have massive staff sections, which generally speaking are most effective at frustrating and annoying the people in the line who do the productive work" (Robson, 1986 :29). However, Robinson does not elaborate on how centralised structures annoy people on the shop floor. Structures should be such that as many people as possible are close to the end customer (Robson, 1986). Customer orientation and excellence go together. All customers like to be treated nicely. Robson (1986), brings a novel idea about the concept of a customer. He states that customers are not only the people the company sells things to, the external customer. Everyone in the organisation is and has a customer as a result of what he does. External customers are those who buy the company's products but internal customers are the company's employees. The internal customer is the person who receives the worker's portion of work after the worker has done his/her job. A worker is also a customer to someone who passes the work to him/her. Everyone in the organisation should look at this concept of customer orientation this way (Robson, 1986).

The internal customer is as important as the external customer. If this concept is properly understood and accepted by everyone in the organisation, the customers

would receive the treatment, services and goods they need from the company because generally, nobody wants to disappoint a customer. It is through a decentralised structure that this concept can easily be achieved (Robson, 1986). This view of an inclination towards decentralisation is, however, contrary to the findings made by Peters & Waterman (1982); and Hobbs (1987), who found that both centralised and decentralised organisational structures were prevalent among successful companies.

3.5.3 A Centralised and Decentralised Structure

There has been some controversy during the last two decades on whether decentralisation or centralisation is the better organisational strategy. Quite a number of experts and business executives among whom are Alfred Sloan and Ralph Cordiner, consultants, and academics, support either viewpoint (Hobbs, 1987). Even though the fourteen corporations studied by Hobbs (1987), showed an inclination towards decentralisation, several of them operated successfully for a considerable period of time under a centralised organisational structure (Hobbs, 1987). Also the successful corporations studied by Peters and Waterman (1982), were either decentralised or centralised.

3.5.4 Simple Structure, Minimum Staff

A simple form and lean staff has been found to be another characteristic of successful companies (Peters & Waterman, 1982). Simple structures are easy to understand and this can have some bearing on positive human relations. Easily understood structures can bring about harmony whereas complex structures might be a source of conflict resulting from a lack of understanding. Lean staff can be seen as an advantage from the point of view that authority is bound in a small number of people and rules can be implemented easily in such a set-up. Peters &

Waterman (1982); and Peters & Austin (1985), maintain that excellent companies are not over staffed. Pride and enthusiasm are "virtually impossible in a giant, overly specialized organisational unit." The authors focus on plant size and the notion that small plants often out perform the bigger ones. They point out as an example that Emerson Electric and Dana limit the size of their plants to staff of about 500 ... Digital Equipment says "no more than 300 to 400." GM says if it ever builds anything new, the limit will be around 300 (Peters & Austin, 1985). They use the minimum number of staff very effectively.

Peters (1992), in his recent publication, *Liberation Management*, emphasises the importance of structure. He mentions that his previous books, *In Search of Excellence*, and *Thriving on Chaos* focussed on customers, and paid little attention to structure. Structure precedes customer care, he says,. Corporations can operate effectively only if they have small structures, at head office. The main purpose of this is to liberate human potential by reducing bureaucracy. Peters (1992), stresses the idea that 'small is beautiful'. Companies with autonomous profit centres tend to do remarkably well. Autonomy in a small business structure can be attained through trust, the encouragement of entrepreneurship, and the empowerment of people. This implies that organisations, ought to train their employees and entrust them with important decisions.

This is another finding in which Hobbs (1987), Peters & Waterman (1982), and Peters (1992) share the same view. "Conspicuous show and elaborate hype are not typical ingredients that make the vast majority of this elite group function so well" (Hobbs, 1987: 136). It's often an advantage to have personnel only sufficient to man the operations of the corporation, especially in the administrative, level at headquarters. Over manning tends to result in the concentration of internal problems to the exclusion of proper planning for the entire organisation.

However, Neylan (1985), challenges the idea of lean staff by stating that "if large acquisitions are anathema among excellent companies what about PepsiCo, which grew by acquiring a company that was almost as big, Frito-Lay (although it would now like to divest itself of the sizable Wilson Sporting Goods p. 63)? PepsiCo is apparently doing well in spite of its big numbers of employees. He criticises Peters & Austin (1985) as advocating a : Do as we say and not as real companies do" philosophy.

In view of this raging controversy, the attribute of lean staff might need to be further researched. The arguments of Peters & Austin (1985), Peters & Waterman (1982), and Hobbs (1987) however, are more convincing because the authors did a more thorough investigation on a number of companies.

3.5.5 Flexibility of Structure

Excellent companies are not characterised by a particular organisational structure. They are either centralised or decentralised; they are flexible (Peters & Waterman, 1982; Hobbs, 1987). Centralisation or decentralisation here refers to the level at which important decisions are made. This attribute is an indication that excellent companies are not rigid in their styles of management. The companies are however, very centralised on the values they most treasure. (Peters & Waterman, 1982). The type of structure followed is that one found suitable and is required by the situation. It is not uncommon to find some of these companies both centralised and decentralised. In these companies some major decisions are left to the companies' branches or their departments. However, there are some key decisions which are central and reflect the companies' belief and values. Such decisions are made by Head Office.

Peters and Waterman (1982) and Hobbs (1987), are also in agreement with regard to this attribute. The fourteen companies in Hobbs' study were either centralised or decentralised. It was not clear as to which organisational form was better - centralisation or decentralisation. A few of these operations had been at one time in history operated successfully under centralised or autocratic leadership. Most however, seem to have experienced some degree of decentralisation. It however, remains debatable to conclude as to which of the two basic forms is better in specific instances.

3.6 THE JAPANESE ATTRIBUTES OF EXCELLENCE

Some valuable lessons have been drawn from the remarkable success of the Japanese style of management from the late 1940s to the present. In spite of its small size as a country, Japan has the largest GNP in the world. Japan supports some 115 million people, has investment and GNP growth rates about twice that of the United States, and a net \$75 billion dollar export/import balance. Recently, the Japanese productivity increased about four times the rate "enjoyed" by the U.S. (Cosier & Dalton, 1986).

Considering that Japan is without natural resources (except, of course its work force), these accomplishments are incredible (Pascale & Athos, 1981). This tremendous growth and success were part of the impetus for studying Japanese business methods. Ouchi (1981) in Theory Z, captures well the relevance of these methods to American industry (Cosier & Dalton, 1986).

There is an underlying similarity in tasks between Japanese and American business that suggests that some of the essential characteristics of Japanese companies can be transferrable (Ouchi, 1981).

According to Cosier and Dalton (1986), there are some certain differences in the manner in which the Japanese manage their companies. However, most people agree that the following attributes are central to the Japanese art of management.

1. A participative approach to decision making especially qualitative circles.
2. Reliance on collective values. This involves a group sense of responsibility.
3. A holistic approach to people.
4. Less explicit control mechanisms.
5. An attention to style, the manner in which key managers behave in achieving organisational goals.
6. Super ordinate goals, the guiding concepts that an organisation instils in its members.

The Japanese Management is characterised by 'decision making by consensus; lower level employees initiate the idea and submit it to the next level until it reaches the desk of the top manager. If the proposal is approved it is returned to the initiator for implementation. Even though the decision - making process is time consuming, the implementation of the decision - because of the general consensus at various levels is quick and does not require additional selling' (O' Donnell & Weihrich, 1992 : 57). A large amount of effort goes into the defining of the problem; emphasis is placed on communication before a decision is made. The West on the other hand is often accused of making a decision before defining the problem. This management approach by the Japanese contributes to their outstanding performance of their companies (O' Donnell & Weihrich, 1992).

3.7 VIEWS OF THE EXCLUSIVITY OF SOME ATTRIBUTES

The attributes of excellence already discussed above generally reflect some sound principles. Contemporary managers must, however, be aware that there are no instant solutions (Cosier & Dalton, 1986).

Some excellent companies quoted by Peters & Waterman have experienced some problems. Hewlet Packard, for example, was forced to abandon some of the attributes listed by Peters and Waterman. Business Week November 5, 1984, points out that at least, 14 of the 43 "excellent" companies highlighted by Peters and Waterman lost their luster after just two years. Bruce- Briggs (1982), criticised the use of Japanese style of management in the U.S. as "a dangerous folly" stating that the implementation of Japanese management methods has not met with uniform success. Sethi, Namiki, and Swanson (1984), reveal that most of the approaches advanced by the Japanese style of management are not applicable in the U.S. They argue that "a nation's management system is not just a set of tools and techniques that can be applied anywhere and at any time".

3.7.1 An Explanation for the Conflicting Evidence

According to Cosier and Dalton (1986), it is likely that the evidence on the effectiveness of *In Search of Excellence* and Japanese methods conflict because both organisations have a series of developments. The temporal aspect of the development is a key to the appropriate use of "excellence" approaches espoused by Japanese management and other management interventions.

Cosier and Dalton (1986), further their argument by quoting Larry Greiner's (1984) proposal of a model of corporate development consisting of five stages of growth:

creation, direction, delegation, coordination, and collaboration. These different stages according to Cosier and Dalton (1986 : 65), require different approaches to management. Applying valuable but inappropriate systems "ignore the implications of organisational dynamics and evolution". The principles at some stages of organisational evolution may lead to poor performance or even failure.

The view taken by Cosier and Dalton and other critics as discussed above is mostly speculative and not the reason for the failure of some excellent companies listed by Peters and Waterman. The researcher agrees with Ball and Asbury (1989), who also disagree with critics for the following reasons:

1. The research by Peters and Waterman focused on lessons to be learned and focused on positive factors, i.e. "what to do's" rather than "what not to do's". Many of the companies in their sample must surely have been doing a few things wrong.
2. The eight lessons were not common to all companies, i.e. some companies were not applying certain factors.
3. Markets have shifted in rapidly changing environments. Some excellent companies needed time to adapt. Their poor performance was therefore a temporary aberration; the research focused on the long-term. Some of the under - performers (such as IBM) have already bounced back.
4. Some of the excellent companies may have become complacent and forgotten their lines - ceasing to apply themselves to some of the things they were doing well (Ball & Asbury, 1989 : 2).

3.8 SUMMARY

This chapter has focused on the qualities of excellent companies in Western countries (Peters & Waterman (1982), and Hobbs (1987), Japan (Ouchi, 1981), and South Africa (Ball & Asbury, 1989). It can be established from the discussion held that the successful companies attain excellence through the proper formulation of a strategy, the adoption of an appropriate culture and the establishment of a relevant structure. Within these three theoretical frameworks, the companies have shown dedication and have followed a well planned approach and have not been guided by intuition. This has shown that success is not achieved through mere luck or chance; it is achieved through dedication and planning.

Michael Porter (1990), advocates a dimension slightly different from the other researchers. His emphasis is on strategy. He mentions that companies succeed through pressure and challenge of the stakeholders, such as customers, suppliers shareholders, and unions. Companies excel through making an effort to satisfy the demands of their stakeholders.

The underlying theme for all successful companies is their management approach. These companies have followed particular management styles (Peters and Waterman, 1982; Hobbs, 1987; Ball and Asbury, 1989). It is, therefore, within the context of management that attributes of excellent companies in Zimbabwe are being sought. Whether the management approach of the successful companies in Zimbabwe differs from that of the West will be determined by the results of this study.

According to the review of the literature in this chapter, companies operating in different cultures have different attributes of excellence. The Japanese work ethic and style of management is different from that of the West, and South African

companies have been found to require a unique leadership to attain excellence. Although similarities have been established in a few areas particularly on the companies in South Africa and those of the West, some major differences could still be noted in others. These differences could largely be attributable to the differences in culture. The next chapter discusses the methodology used to collect the data for the study and the way of analysing them.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter discusses the research methods used for conducting the study. The methods often used fall under two main strategies, namely the quantitative approach and the qualitative approach. There is a view that the study of human behaviour should be scientific, in the mode of natural sciences and that qualitative research counts as "unscientific" or prescientific (Filstead, 1970). The other view is that qualitative methods may be of value when existing measurement techniques are insufficiently advanced to facilitate certain topics being studied in a truly rigorous way. Qualitative methods may then have to be used, perhaps pending the development of more sophisticated techniques (Guardner, 1979; Hoineville & Jowell, 1978; Babbie, 1973; Moser & Kalton, 1971).

On the other hand, some argue that the quantitative approach in its concern with scientific procedures, hypothesis testing, measuring statistical significance, etc. has become irrelevant and introspective for the study of social sciences (Walker, 1985). Fundamental differences between the natural and social sciences rule out the possibility of using the techniques of natural science to study social phenomena (Halfpenny, 1979; Giddens, 1971).

Qualitative techniques enable the researcher to get close to the data and they tackle the problem of validity better than the quantitative approach. By using quantitative techniques on social topics the researcher tends to concentrate on consistency at the expense of validity (Blummer, 1976; & Filstead, 1970).

A proper description of the social world necessitates the researcher "getting inside" the objects so that he understands and knows them as subjects. In this interaction, the researcher acquires an understanding and achieves a high degree of insight which can only be attained if the researcher engages his subjects fully rather than to adopt a stance of uncommitted neutrality (Walker, 1985; Bulmer, 1982).

A qualitative research technique may be used in any or all of the following three phases of research according to Walker (1985):-

- (a) in the preliminary phase only, for concept formulation or, generation of hypothesis or, for a clarification of concepts or, for a pilot study.
- (b) in the principal phase, if for example, the topic is sensitive, complicated, immeasurable, or if the research subjects are inarticulate or precious or, are few in number, or action oriented. A qualitative method may also be used to complement quantification during the principal phase of research (Bebbington et al, 1983).
- (c) in the validation stage to check the conclusion of research in a quantitative project.

The choice of qualitative techniques as the main approach during the principal phase of a study frequently depends firstly, upon the research topic. If the research is concerned with relationships or interactions, (as is the case with the present study, which looks into the management approach of the companies), a qualitative research approach could be suitable for the study (Walker, 1985).

Secondly, if the subjects require VIP-status treatment which prohibits the use of standard measurement techniques that require the subject to perform operations or give responses which may seem at best mystifying or at worst humiliating, a qualitative approach method will be chosen as suitable (Young & Mills, 1980 : 5). The present study is also characterised by this factor; the chief executives, departmental managers, and other employees, have been the subjects for interview. They require careful treatment such as interviewing them, and the latter is the qualitative research approach.

Thirdly, the research objective is also relevant in the choice of a research method. If, for example, the researcher, "wants the subjects to do the thinking for him because they are directly involved with the issue or can bring a wide range of knowledge and experience to bear on it, a qualitative approach becomes a suitable choice (Bebbington et al, 1983; Young & Mills, 1980; Walker, 1985). The same applies if the researcher also wants to gain first-hand experience of the situation or problem" (Walker, 1985 : 21-22). It may be that quantification results in the exclusion of valuable data. In the present study, the interviewees have more knowledge about their work and they are in a better position to provide valuable data as they speak in their own words in an interview. In this study, the researcher wanted to know how the companies studied are managed. The need for depth and understanding outweighed the need for quantification (Walker, 1985).

In view of the points raised above, this study has used both the qualitative and quantitative research approaches. The qualitative approach has been used in the principal phase of the study, the conducting of the interviews and it has been complemented by the quantitative research; each of the interviewees was provided with a questionnaire to complete after the interview. The quantitative approach was used again in the processing of data for selecting the companies for the study.

The research approach used in the present study was modeled after Peters and Waterman's (1982) *In Search of Excellence*. The research design employed was aimed at determining the management attributes of excellent companies in Zimbabwe.

Even though this study was patterned after Peters and Waterman, the researcher was aware that one of the criticisms levelled against them was their methodology. Aupperle, Ascar, and Booth (1986), state as follows:-

There is no mention of how the target population was chosen. It appears that many of the firms were clients of Mckinsey, the consulting firm with which both authors were associated.

It is not clear what the size of their original sample was nor how representative it is (pp. 19, 22). In one instance, 75 firms have been mentioned in the text (p. 13), whereas in a Training and Development Journal interview, Peters has referred to 150 firms : Thompson, 1983: 16; in (Aupperle, Ascar & Booth, 1986).

Further criticisms against Peters and Waterman are:

- i. There is no mention of how the companies were analysed and how the eight attributes were identified.
- ii. The authors' supporting evidence (an occasional reference to financial analysis, a series of anecdotes about companies and quotes from executives) was incomplete and even observers wonder if the companies were actually visited and how the judgments and findings were synthesised and corroborated. The

authors' dependence on secondary sources and potentially defective research design disallow any contribution the work may have made to management theory : Carroll, (1983); : (in Hitt & Ireland, 1987: 91).

- iii. Johnson, Natarajan, & Rapport (1985) expressed concern regarding the performance indices Peter and Waterman used. They argue that the six items used (compound asset growth, compound equity growth, ratio of market value to book value, average return on total capital, average return on equity, and average return on sales measure only a firm's financial performance.
- iv. They further propose that "the dominant economic goal of a firm is the creation of shareholder wealth," and suggest that a firm's economic performance is the outcome Peter and Waterman should have examined. They contend that judging corporate excellence solely on financial (accounting - based) measures can be misleading and that return to shareholders is the true measure of a firm's "excellence" : Johnson, Natarajan, & Rapport ,1985; in (Hitt & Ireland, 1987: 91).

Although the critics of Peters and Waterman discounted the sample selected by the latter, they nevertheless used the financial criteria set up in *In Search of Excellence* (Peters & Waterman, 1982) to analyse the performance of the excellent firms cited in the Forbes Annual Report on American Industry (Aupperle, Ascar, & Booth, 1986) and to compare these with the firms selected by Peters and Waterman.

The Peters and Waterman companies did not perform as well as the Forbes excellent companies, not because the criteria used by Peters and Waterman to choose their sample were wrong, but because the companies were chosen from a population that was not representative of the North American Industry (Aupperle, Ascar, & Booth, 1986).

The weaknesses of the Peters and Waterman study are some of the strengths of the present study because the researcher aimed at addressing the valid criticisms levelled against them to refine his study.

4.2 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The objectives of this study are:-

1. To discover how Zimbabwean excellent companies are managed.
2. To discover the distinctive management attributes of Zimbabwean excellent companies.

Some companies in Zimbabwe are successful but the management attributes which make them succeed have not been studied and identified.

The management of an organisation is generally influenced by culture and the environment. According to Stewart (1979 : 113):

What managers think, and how they behave, are partly determined by their environment, the country, the stage of industrialization, the locality, and the industry. They are also influenced by managers' background which is, itself, a product of their environment. The social and educational background of managers and the experience they obtain, will depend upon a variety of social and historical facts, such as how industry started in their country, the stage of industrialization, the status of industry in society, the importance, attached to different occupations and the nature and strength of the barriers to occupational mobility. The backgrounds of the early owners and managers have differed from one country to another.

4.3 POPULATION AND SAMPLE

The focus of study in this research is industrial companies quoted on the Zimbabwean Stock Exchange. To facilitate an in depth study, a sample of seven excellent companies

was selected from the seven industry categories. The sample was drawn from a total of sixty companies quoted on the Zimbabwean Stock Exchange and it represents 12% of the total number.

Notably missing from the sample are the mining companies. These were deliberately left out because the disposal of their products is largely controlled by international markets. The success or failure of a mining company may not be attributed to its management alone but also to other international factors such as the setting of the prices of mineral products by the international markets.

4.4 CRITERIA FOR SELECTING THE SAMPLE

The sample design for the companies studied was purposive. The International Standard Industrial Classification (ISIC) was used for selecting the companies according to industry type so as to make the sample representative of the Zimbabwean Industry. The excellent company was selected from each category of ISIC. A company could only be considered for selection as excellent if it was competing with others in the same industry. This was for the purpose of excluding monopolies from the study.

The companies studied were selected from the Financial Gazette, a Zimbabwean Financial newspaper, which annually ranks all Zimbabwean companies quoted on the Zimbabwean stock exchange. The following two sets of criteria were used in selecting the excellent companies:

4.4.1 Financial Criteria

The financial criteria used in this study and the ones which encompass those appreciated by Hitt and Ireland, (1987); Johnson, Natarajan, and Rapport (1985); the critics of Peters & Waterman (1982), are:-

- (a) Net earnings to turnover
- (b) Return on net asset value
- (c) Earnings per share
- (d) Market capitalization

The basis for the financial success of the companies studied was that they are in monopolistic competition and have the following features:

- (i) Each company faces a downward sloping demand curve.
- (ii) There is free entry into the industry.
- (iii) There is a large number of companies.
- (iv) Companies choose their prices as well as their outputs (Parkin, 1993).

These companies compete to raise their profits. The sources of gain in monopolistic competition include product innovation, that is constantly seeking products that provide the companies with a competitive edge. A company that manages to introduce a new and differentiated variety of products temporarily faces a downward sloping demand curve and will temporarily raise its price and therefore, earn more profits. Advertising is one of the sources of gain of monopolistic companies (Parkin, 1993).

The measure of excellence was, therefore, the financial success of the companies. A successful company should be able to generate wealth for its shareholders (Peters & Waterman, 1982). Such wealth is manifested in high profits earned by the companies.

4.4.2 Macroeconomic Criteria

The second set of criteria is based on the government objectives including:

- (a) Growth in Provision for local employment.
- (b) Growth in export performance.

The government has interfered with the private sector since independence in 1980. According to Parkin (1993), all government economic action stems from two aspects of economic life:-

- (i) market failure;
- (ii) redistribution.

Market failure is the inability of an unregulated market to achieve allocative efficiency (Parkin, 1993). Goods and services must be equitably distributed to all citizens. The government tends to interfere with the private sector if it sees some failure by the latter in the proper distribution of goods and services.

The redistribution of income, wealth and resources is another explanation for government intervention. The government of a newly independent Zimbabwe redressed the imbalances created by the colonial rule by intervening in the private sector (EIU, 1989 - 90). The main focus of the government in its interventionist policy has been on employment and export performance (Economic Intelligence Unit, 1989 - 90).

4.5 SELECTION OF SAMPLE

The criteria listed above were used to measure the companies for a period of seven years from 1988 to 1994 for the financial criteria and from 1988 to 1993 for the criteria based on economic conditions. Data for 1994 were not available for the latter type of criteria. The financial data for selecting the sample were derived from the data bank of the Stock Analysts Data World in Harare whilst the data for Macroeconomic criteria were collected from the Confederation of Zimbabwean Industries.

For a company to be selected as the best under the financial criteria, it had to be leading other companies in its category in at least three of the four criteria (as listed in 4.4.1 above) for a period of at least four years. Whereas, for a company to be selected as excellent under the criteria based on macroeconomic objectives, it had to have the best results in at least one of the measures in section 4.4.2 (a) and (b) for at least four of the six years.

The envisaged political ideology in Zimbabwe since independence has been "Scientific Socialism". But at the time of the study this was seen to be rapidly changing because in 1989 the country introduced a new investment code and actively encouraged foreign investment" (Hodd, 1991 : 360). The Government, however, has been seen to continue to be cautious over introducing liberalising economic reforms (Hodd, 1991). This means that the spirit of socialism still lives even though the ideology appears to have been abandoned. The main objective of socialism is to increase the welfare of society as a whole and to discourage the accumulation of wealth by individuals, hence the increase in state intervention through the purchase of shares in public companies by the government (Economic Intelligence Unit Country Profile) (IEU 1993/94).

The two criteria chosen (4.4.1 and 4.4.2 above) are, therefore, indicators of benefits which accrue to the nation as a whole, a measure in harmony with a socialist ideology. These criteria reflect policy statements at ministerial level. The minister of Economic Planning and Development confirmed this in his 1991 budget speech in which he stated that the most critical problem facing the economy was unemployment, implying that employment creation is very important (Chidzero, 1991).

Also, in an interview with Brighton Marezu, the Senior Secretary for Finance, the researcher learned that the main objective of the government in economic development was the creation of employment and promotion of exports in order to increase foreign currency earnings.

"One of the major aims of government is to encourage industrialists to create employment and to export." A similar view was confirmed by Kunjeku of the Zimbabwe Investment Centre (ZIC). Interview : 21:12:93).

In the light of these aims by government, it became evident to the researcher that the success of a company in a Zimbabwean context could be defined in terms of its provision for local employment and its growth in export performance. The researcher also used such criteria because they are quantifiable.

The financial criteria as used by Peters and Waterman (1982) were seen not to be a useful guide in the selection of the companies because they focus mainly on accounting and they could be misleading (Bruce, Johnson, Ashok, Natarajan, & Alfred Rapport, 1985); they exclude return to shareholders (Hit & Ireland, 1987 : 91). They were more suitable for selecting companies in a capitalist economy, whereas most Zimbabwean companies are state-controlled (EIU, 1993/94). However, the researcher used some

variation of both types of criteria to see if there was any common ground in the results. It was only after both criteria had been used for selecting the best companies that it could be established whether they achieve the same results or not.

The data for selecting the best company in terms of provision of employment and export performance showed actual and expected company performance in a three scale measure of 1, 2, 3 corresponding to DOWN, SAME, UP, respectively, for each company.

The researcher having selected the excellent companies for the study in terms of the two sets of criteria and according to the procedure laid down in (4.5) above, he further calculated the means of the values for the financial and macroeconomic criteria over the period of seven and six years, respectively. The purpose for this was to find out if the companies selected also show overall superior performance in their respective industries. Tables and bar charts were constructed from the results and these revealed that the companies selected for the research stood out as the best performers in their respective industries in terms of both the financial and macroeconomic criteria, evidence that the companies selected are excellent.

The averages of the values for the selection criteria used for sampling the excellent company from the Industrial Classification Codes 31 & 32 (ISIC 31 & 32) are indicated below as Table 4-1 and Figure 4-1 for ISIC 31 and Table 4-2 and Figure 4-2 for ISIC 32. The companies selected from this industrial classification were Delta Corporation from ISIC 31 and Spinweave from ISIC 32. Similar results indicating the superior performance of the other companies selected from the other industries are shown as Appendix A-1. The industrial classification codes table indicating the divisions of the

companies according to their products is shown as Appendix A-2 and the list of excellent companies selected for the study is shown as Appendix A-3.

Table 4-1: Mean Values of the Selection Criteria for Companies in ISIC 31

	Code	EPS	NET	NAV	CAPT	EMPL	EXPO
AFDI	31	16.71	9.85	8.61	7.59	0.33	0.33
AGRICO	31	14.67	5.34	7.75	9.33	1	0
BAT	31	49.25	18.1	10.95	13.25	2	2.83
CAIR	31	34.08	5.82	9.62	9.62	0	1
DELT	31	75.67	9.33	20.55	550.99	3	2.83
HIPPO	31	25.63	5.5	11.67	12.32	1.83	1
NAT	31	62.07	4.98	14.65	13.31	0	1.17
ROTH	31	48.58	10.16	12.85	13.27	1	0.33
SCHW	31	49.1	8.45	15.58	17.48	0	1.5
TANG	31	63.11	18.92	10.67	13.19	0.66	1.83
RSR	31	37.95	1.45	7.95	8.98	2.16	0

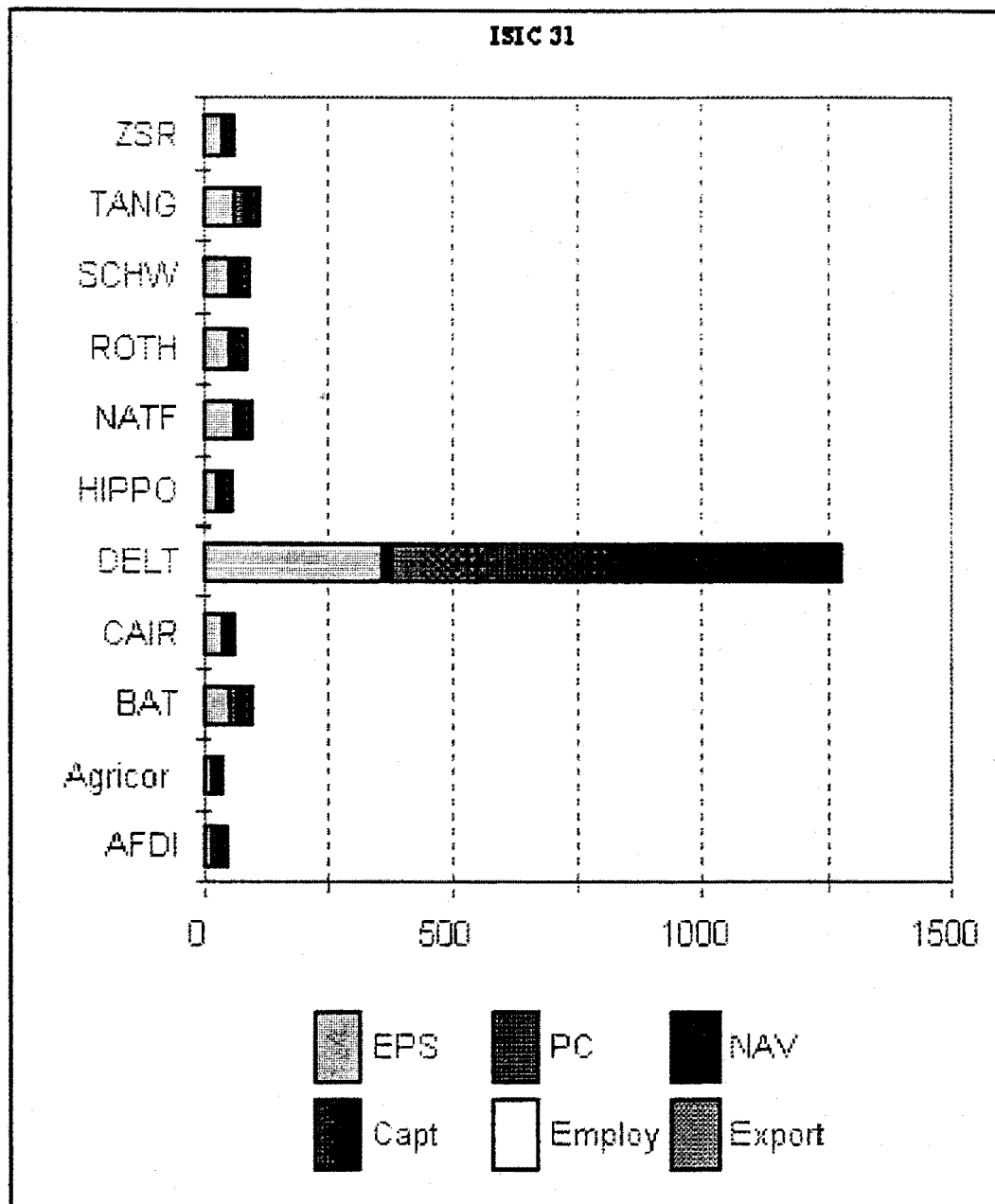
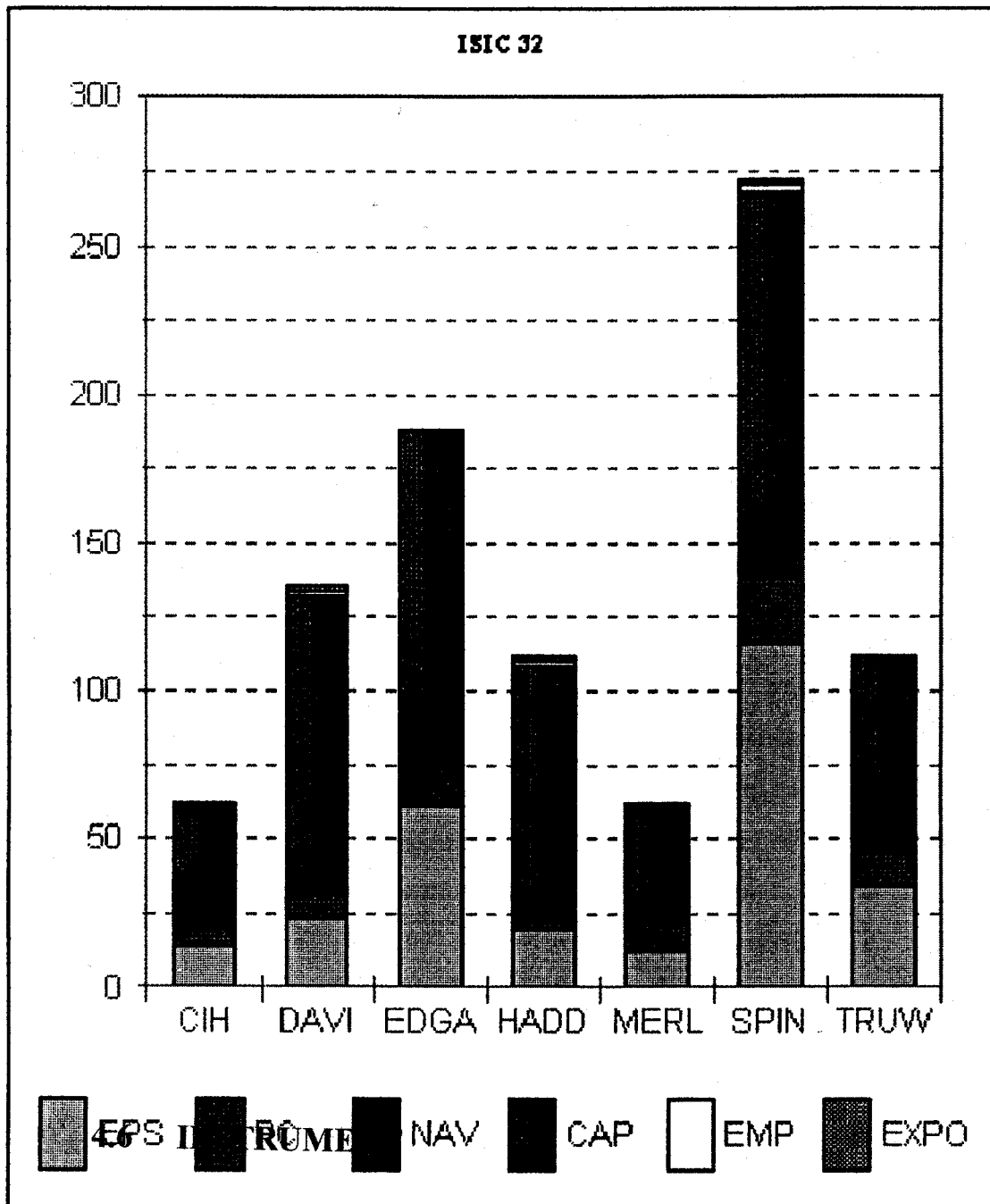
Figure 4-1**Table 4-2: Mean Values of the Selection Criteria for Companies in ISIC 32**

Table 4-2: Mean Values of the Selection Criteria for Companies in ISIC 32

	Code	EPS	NET	NAV	CAP	EMP	EXPO
CIH	32	13.49	6.12	18.94	22.89	0.33	0
DAVI	32	22.86	8.89	14.55	85.79	1.83	1.5
EDGA	32	61.07	8.81	29.71	88.16	0	0
HADD	32	20.13	2.62	9.74	75.75	2	2
MERL	32	12.62	9.26	10.06	29.83	0	0
SPIN	32	115.79	22.4	21.39	108.87	2	1.83
TRUW	32	33.93	10.77	30.37	36.33	0	0

Figure 4-2



4.6 INSTRUMENT

An instrument is a tool used to achieve an objective. In a research context, it is a procedure employed to collect data for a study.

4.6.1 Methodological Triangulation

This refers to the use of as many techniques as possible to collect data on the same subjects in order to verify and strengthen the validity of the research results (Kane, 1985). To achieve the same purpose in the present study, use has been made of the interview, a quantitative questionnaire and the observation of the companies.

4.6.2 Interviews and Research Design

The interview is a powerful and indispensable research instrument, yielding data which no other research instrument can yield; it is adaptable, capable of being used with different subjects in various types of research and is uniquely suited to providing detail and depth about the subjects under investigation (Kerlinger, 1986 : 441).

Seeing that this study is exploratory and seeks to discover the management attributes of the companies, these can best be elicited through the use of the interview. This tool has, therefore, been applied as the major one for collecting data for the study. Previous similar studies by Peters and Waterman (1982); Peters and Austin (1985); Ouchi (1981); and Porter (1990), also used this tool.

4.6.3 Advantages of Interviews in Collecting Data

1. Interviews can be used with illiterate subjects (Stone, 1984).
2. Often a far greater proportion of the subjects contacted will participate in the study compared with the proportion of surveys which will return a mailed questionnaire (Kerlinger, 1986).
3. The interviewer can clarify questions he realises the interviewee does not clearly understand (Kerlinger, 1986; Stone, 1984; Taylor, 1984).
4. The validity of the interviewee's responses may be determined to a greater extent (Stone, 1984).

4.6.4 Limitations of Interviews

1. For collecting data the interview has the potential of being a more reactive technique than the questionnaire. The interpersonal nature of the interview may lead to changes in attitude.
2. The interviewer - because of fatigue or decreased task interest - may alter the manner of asking the interviewees, and the fidelity with which responses are recorded from one interview to the next (Stone, 1984).
3. An interview is an obtrusive measure. Individuals are aware of being research subjects. This may introduce errors (Bailey, 1982).
4. Interviews take a lot of time. It may take an hour or even two to get information from one individual. This large time investment, therefore, costs effort and money (Kerlinger, 1986).

Interviews vary in terms of the degree of structure presented by the questions asked and the responses obtained from the interviewee as follows:-

4.6.5 Methods of Interview

4.6.5.1 *The structured Interview*

This type of interview, also known as the directive, limited response, or formal interview, is one in which both the interview items and response possibilities available to the respondent are predetermined. The interviewer presents the interviewee with a standard set of questions during the interview. Responses to these questions are made by the interviewee who selects one of the alternatives accompanying each item in the schedule (Stone, 1984; Taylor, 1984).

Since the purpose of this study is to elicit management attributes, the structured interview is not suitable as a design. Because interview items in that form are predetermined, this might block out some valuable information. The approach of this study is exploratory and is designed for the researcher to learn from the interviewees themselves.

4.6.5.2 *The Unstructured Interview*

This method of interviewing is also described as informal, nondirective, or clinical. In this type of interview, the interviewer does little more than keep the interviewer's comments focused on some topic. The respondent usually has complete control of such comments (Stone, 1984). This method of data collection is also not suitable for this type of study because it requires a lot of time and the interviewee may comment on only a few items in a very long stretch of time; it is too loose. The interviewee's time and that of the researcher needs to be economically utilised.

4.6.5.3 *The Semi-Structured Interview*

This type of interview is also known as the open ended or the free response interview. It consists of a set of questions worded carefully and arranged in order to take each respondent through the same sequence and asking the same questions with essentially the same words (Patton, 1987). Further advantages of the semi-structured interview in comparison with the other types of interview are that:

1. It generates a standardised form of questions; other researchers can easily replicate the study in new programs, using the same instrument with different subjects.
2. It is a more flexible and at the same time a more time saving instrument to collect data than other types of interviews.

The semi-structured interview was selected as the most appropriate for this study because it is more economical and it is at the same time more comprehensive, covering a broader aspect about the subjects being investigated, than the structured interview. An interview schedule designed to meet the objectives of the study and also made appropriate for the semi-structured approach was administered to the interviewees. This schedule is provided as Appendix B.

4.6.6 Subjects for Interview

The chief executives, some departmental managers, and some employees of the companies were asked a list of questions provided in the interview schedule.

4.6.7 Quantitative Questionnaire (Semantic Differential)

After each interview, a fixed item questionnaire (the semantic differential) was given to the interviewee/s to complete. The researcher obtained this instrument from Professor Hofmeyr of the Graduate School of Business Leadership, Unisa. The questionnaire elicits the opinions of the interviewees concerning the management styles of their companies. After giving the questionnaire to the interviewee/s the researcher explained its purpose and how it had to be completed. The researcher waited for each interviewee to complete the questionnaire and then collected it. The semantic differential used is shown as Appendix C.

4.6.8 Observation

The companies were also observed to cross-validate the data obtained through interviews. To facilitate the observations on the companies, a chart was specifically designed by the researcher. Each of the observed factors represents the researcher's expectations of the excellent companies and associated culture. The factors in the chart are: general outlook of the surroundings of the company, reception of visitors, customer parking, employee relations, transport services provided, organisation of staff offices-whether it facilitates communication within the company or not. These factors are indicative of customer care and the company's concern for its human resources, the factors which according to Clutterbuck & Kernaghan, (1991) and Birrel (1992), are important in successful companies. To achieve validity in the collection of data through observation, the researcher provided each interviewee with a chart to complete; this procedure was preferred over that one of the completion of the chart by the researcher alone because the latter method could be subjective and fraught with in-built biases. The company observation chart is provided as Appendix D.

4.6.9 Documentary Sources

Any written material obtainable from the companies studied has been used as a source of data. These include brochures, newspaper reports and directors' reports.

4.7 RELIABILITY

A check on the reliability of the interview schedule and the two quantitative instruments, the semantic differential and the observation chart was made through a pilot study of two companies in Butterworth, Transkei, and another company in Bulawayo, Zimbabwe. The interviewees for the pilot study consisted of the chief executive officer, four departmental managers, and a 15% stratified proportional sample of employees from each of the levels of skilled, semi-skilled, and unskilled categories. These were chosen randomly through the personnel office. Titles of the departmental managers were written on pieces of paper and put into a small container. These pieces of paper with titles on them were picked and a title appearing on the piece of paper was written down and the paper replaced into the container until four titles were written down. This is sampling with replacement and it ensures that the papers picked up have equal chances of being picked.

The same procedure was done for the names of the employees at the various levels of positions. The employees were interviewed in groups of their respective positions. After interviewing all the selected subjects, the author gave each of them two forms to complete. One form was the semantic differential and the other was the observation chart. The company at Butterworth, Tanda Milling Co, was studied again after two months, a period the researcher thought to be long enough for respondents not to

remember their responses but not too long for the environment to have changed (Huysamen 1976). The second interview was administered to the same people who had been interviewed previously and they were also asked to complete the same questionnaire and observation chart. Appendix E shows data for the pilot study.

The calculations of the reliability coefficients of the semantic differential and that of the observation chart are shown in Table 4.3 and Table 4.4 below.

TABLE 4.3 RELIABILITY COEFFICIENT FOR SEMANTIC DIFFERENTIAL

	Xi	Xii			
a	3.1333333	3.2	6.3333333	40.111111	
b	2.4666667	2.4	4.8666667	23.684444	
c	2.3333333	2.5333333	4.8666667	23.684444	
d		2.6	2.7333333	5.3333333	28.444444
e		2.2	2.3333333	4.5333333	20.551111
f		2.4	2.2666667	4.6666667	21.777778
g		2.2	2.1333333	4.3333333	18.777778
h	2.1333333	2.1333333		4.2666667	18.204444
i	2.3333333	2.3333333		4.6666667	21.777778
j	2.0666667	2.2	4.2666667	18.204444	
k	2.1333333	2.2	4.3333333	18.777778	
Sum	26	26.466667			
			52.466667	Sum 'E'	253.99556
		SUM	52.466667	Sum 'E'/2	126.99778
		Sq. SUM	2752.7511		
		Sum Xt	127.06222		
	C =	125.12505			
	Total =	1.9371717			
	Items =	0.009899			
	Individ. =	1.8727273			
Source	df	ss	ms		
Items	1	0.009899	0.009899		
Indiv.	9	1.8727273	0.2080808		
Resid.	9	0.0545455	0.0060606		
Total	19	1.9371717			
Reliability Coefficient is:					
Rtt=	0.9708738				

The value of the reliability coefficient for the semantic differential is 0,9708738. This is a high score indicating that the instrument is reliable.

TABLE 4.4 RELIABILITY COEFFICIENT FOR OBSERVATION CHART

	Xi	Xii		
a	2.1333333	2.2666667	4.4	19.36
b	2.2	2.2666667	4.4666667	19.951111
c	2.3333333	2.1333333	4.4666667	19.951111
d	2.1333333	2.2	4.3333333	18.777778
e	2.4	2.2	4.6	21.16
f	2.0666667	1.9333333	4	16
g	2.0666667	2.0666667	4.1333333	17.084444
h	2.0666667	1.8666667	3.9333333	15.471111
i	2.2	2.1333333	4.3333333	18.777778
j	2.0666667	2.0666667	4.1333333	17.084444
Sum	21.666667	21.133333		
		42.8		183.61778
		SUM	42.8	91.808889
		Sq. SUM	1831.84	
		Sum Xt	91.893333	
	C =	91.592		
	Total =	0.3013333		
	Items =	0.0142222		
	Individ. =	0.2168889		
Source	df	ss	ms	
Items	1	0.0142222	0.0142222	
Indiv.	9	0.2168889	0.0240988	
Resid.	9	0.0702222	0.0078025	
Total	19	0.3013333		
Reliability Coefficient is:				
Rtt=	0.6762295			

The reliability coefficient for the observation chart is 0.6762295, also an indication that the instrument is reliable.

4.8 CONTENT VALIDITY

Content validation measures the representativeness of the content or the topic of a measuring instrument (Kerlinger, 1986 : 417). This measure has been achieved by both instruments, the qualitative one and the quantitative one. The parameters for the interview schedule include strategy, planning, decision making, communication, relating to other people, and fostering of values and beliefs. These parameters are based on what managers do as embraced by Mintzberg's three categories of management roles such as interpersonal roles, informational roles, and decision making roles and they cover the relevant dimensions of management (Blunt & Jones, 1992; Mintzberg, 1989).

The respondents in the pilot study were asked questions presented in the interview schedule to check for clarity of the questions and to see if the questions meet the objectives of the study. This instrument produced the results sought.

4.9 COLLECTION OF DATA

4.9.1 The Procedure for Conducting Interviews

1. Early in December, 1994, approximately a month before the interviews began, the chief executive officers of the companies selected for the study were phoned and a letter from the Graduate School of Business Leadership signed by the promoter was faxed to each one of them requesting for permission to study their companies. The type of the letter faxed appears as Appendix F. The letter specified that the study would consist of interviewing the chief executive officer

himself, and some of his employees. On a follow up by telephone a week later, five companies agreed to tentative dates of appointments for the study.

2. About a week before the interviews began, the chief executive officers were phoned again to remind them and to reconfirm the appointments.
3. One of the remaining two companies which had not yet confirmed the dates of the appointment Spinweave, agreed to be studied only after the researcher had arrived at the premises of the company and talked to the Managing Director.
4. Dunlop Zimbabwe Ltd, one of the companies targeted for the research, refused to be studied because the timing of the study coincided with some conflicts within the company. There had been some allegations of racism by top management in the company and the government was investigating the case. However, the researcher substituted National Tyre Service, another rubber company, for Dunlop Zimbabwe. Although both companies Dunlop and National Tyre Services are rubber companies, the former is the only rubber company manufacturing tyres in the country. The company therefore, has more characteristics of a monopoly than of an oligopoly. National Tyre Service, on the other hand competes with the other company listed on the Zimbabwean Stock Exchange, in trading in tyres and because its performance was better than that of the other rubber company listed, the researcher found it suitable for inclusion in the study.
5. The other company, Art Corporation also refused the researcher permission to interview its employees. The reason given by the chief executive was that the company employees were very busy. Only the representative of the chief

executive and four other departmental managers were interviewed in this company.

6. On arrival at the premises of each of the companies to be studied, the researcher requested to see the chief executive to finalise on the permission for the interviews. In all the companies but two, the chief executive officer was the first one to be interviewed and then followed by departmental managers. Employees were interviewed last. It took about 1 hour to interview each chief executive and each departmental manager and about forty-five minutes to interview each category of employees.
7. Before each interview started, permission was sought for the use of a tape recorder. The author explained that the purpose for tape recording was to achieve accuracy in transcribing what would have been said by the interviewees. All the interviewees agreed to the use of the tape recorder. An average of three days was spent in each company.
8. Arrangements for selecting and interviewing the employees were made with the personnel managers. The manner of selecting interviewees is explained in the next section, 4.9.2 below.
9. After the interviews, the chief executives of the companies studied were sent a transcribed copy of the interviews together with a letter thanking them and their subordinates for participating in the study and asking them to comment if there were any errors which could have resulted from misquoting their responses. Such a letter written to the chief executives for the purpose is shown as Appendix H. The chief executives of two of the companies responded. One

faxed some pages of the transcribed copy with a correction involving the title of a departmental manager. The researcher had quoted the manager's title as, 'director of transport services,' whereas the correct title was transport manager.

The other chief executive asked his secretary to reply on his behalf stating that he was pleased with the results, implying that there were no misquotations in the transcript. The letter of the chief executive is shown as Appendix I.

4.9.2 Selection of Interviewees

The employee interviewees were selected with the use of a stratified proportional sampling design. A rate of 18% was used for selecting employees from each of the stratum of skilled, semi-skilled, and unskilled employees. All the departmental managers in the companies were however, interviewed because the number of departments in most of the companies tended to be 6 or even less. Applying a proportional sampling design in such small numbers would therefore, not result in a significant sample size.

The selection of the employees was done by sampling with replacement and this was achieved by asking for a list of names of all the employees in the categories of skilled, semi-skilled, and unskilled from the personnel office of each company. From the list, the names were written onto small pieces of paper by the researcher. The papers with the names were put into a container. The container was shaken, a piece of paper was picked from it at random, and the name on it written down. The piece of paper was returned into the container and the container shaken again and another piece of paper drawn and the name on it also added to the list of selected names. This procedure was

repeated until the number of names was equal to the calculated proportion of 18% of the names in each category of skilled, semiskilled, or unskilled.

The procedure is sampling with replacement. This method of sampling is applied to ascertain that all the names to be selected have an equal chance of being selected. However, if the same name was picked for the second time, it was returned into the container again and the container shaken and the picking done. No name had to be picked more than once.

Before the interviews began in each company, the company's mission statement, policies, company reports, and other available literature were asked for to be studied later by the researcher so as to get some background information about the companies, and for the purpose of comparing what would have been obtained from the interviews with what would have been read in the literature.

Some of the companies studied had branches in different parts of the country. The interviewees were drawn from either Head Office or from the branch. In some head offices, only administrative work was done and there were, therefore, very few employees. It was more appropriate to get to any one of the branches. The assumption adopted by the researcher was that operations for the companies studied are standardised and that there is no significant difference between the employees of the branches and those of Head Office.

The reason for interviewing the chief executives and representatives of all the other levels of employees was to cross-check the data obtained from respondents. Notwithstanding, the need in this study for getting perceptions from respondents at different levels of companies, the researcher is of the opinion that certain data about

the companies remain the same regardless of who reports on them. It could be possible that the chief executive officers, because of the levels of decisions they make, could be deliberately inclined to paint a brighter picture of the companies. Interviewing the other employees could, therefore, serve as a check against such biases and to ensure the validity of the data obtained.

4.10 TYPE OF QUESTIONS ASKED IN THE INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

Of the six types of questions which can be asked on any given topic according to Patton (1987), the researcher asked only five. The reasons for the omission are given below.

4.10.1 Background /Demographic Questions

These concern identifying characteristics of the company. For example, industry type, location, ownership, and age. Answers to these questions help identify the company in relation to other companies. Since the companies were already categorized according to the International Standard Industrial Classification Code (ISIC), the researcher felt that there was no need to ask questions of this nature and for the reason that chief executives and managers are very busy; there should be economy in the use of their time.

4.10.2 Experience/Belief Questions

These are questions about what a company does or has done. They are aimed at eliciting descriptions of experience, behaviours, or actions that would have been observed had the observer been present. Such questions therefore, uncover a company's values, policies, and the management style; these are the factors sought to identify management attributes. Examples of the questions would be those falling under the parameter of "management style" in the questionnaire schedule and they would be those such as: what style of management do you use? How are decisions made in this company? Have you ever had any strike within the last five years? The questions in this category would be directed to both management and employees.

4.10.3 Opinion/Belief Questions

These types of questions are meant to reveal the cognitive and interpretative process of the company. Answers to these questions tell what people in the company or those associated with the company think about the company and about specific settings within the company. Examples of the questions would be: What criteria do you use for selecting the employees? How often are the employees evaluated for promotion? The target group for such questions would be both the managers and employees. Such questions reveal some future planning and beliefs.

4.10.4 Feeling Questions

These are particularly suitable for employees. With the use of such questions, one would discover if the employees feel supported and are satisfied with the company and

what meaning they attach to certain activities of the company as they relate to their employment. Examples of the questions could be : Who gets promoted in this company? Would you prefer to work for this company even if you had an alternative job of the same level? Why? Answers to these questions reveal the management style of the company, whether the company is people oriented or not.

4.10.5 Knowledge Questions

Questions in this category deal with the knowledge on activities and operations of the company management. For example, a company employee is expected to know who its customers, competitors, and suppliers are; he should also know what business the company is engaged in. All such questions help in the formulation of strategies and are necessary in identifying the company's management attributes. Some examples of the questions could be: What achievements has this company had over the past five years? What do you think attributes to the success of this company? These are some of the questions that reveal some management attributes of a company pertaining to strategy. Strategy contributes to the success of a company. The target group for such questions would be the chief executives, and departmental managers.

4.10.6 Sensory Questions

These questions are about what is seen, heard, touched, tasted, and smelled. These questions were meant to reveal themselves to the researcher in the process of the observation of the company. Some of the things observed are reception of visitors, customer parking, and sign posts leading to company premises. These matters observed are a reflection of the way the company relates to its stakeholders, the public

at large. The observation chart referred to above was used to elicit management attributes relating to this category of questions.

All the types of questions mentioned above were designed to reveal the management attributes of the excellent companies under study, the main task of this research. The interview schedule (Appendix B) consists of specific questions based on the categories given above. Its parameters include strategy, planning, decision making, communication, relating with other people, and fostering of values and beliefs, the things which managers do. These parameters are embraced by Mintzberg's three categories of management roles such as interpersonal roles, informational roles and decision making roles (Blunt & Jones, 1992). The questions in the schedule have been designed to meet the objectives of the study. The next procedure after the collection of data was their analysis.

4.11 DATA ANALYSIS

4.11.1 Content Analysis

Qualitative data were analysed with the use of content analysis. Various definitions of content analysis have been provided by different authors such as Krippendorff (1980), Berelson (1952), and Kerlinger (1986). Only one suitable for this study has been adopted. Krippendorff (1980 : 2), states that content analysis involves specialised procedures for processing scientific data. Like all other research techniques, its purpose is to provide knowledge, new insights, a representation of "facts", and a practical guide to action. It is a tool. The requirement of content analysis is that it be reliable, more especially if other researchers, at different points in time and perhaps

under different circumstances, apply the same technique to the same data, the results must be the same; it must be replicable (Krippendorff, 1980).

Another definition of content analysis given by Berelson is that it is a "a research technique for the objective, systematic and quantitative description of the manifest content of communication (1952 : 18). Berelson's choice of the attribute "manifest" to assure that the coding of data in content analysis be "inter subjectively verifiable and reliable", has led many scholars to believe that latent contents are excluded from the analysis. The term "quantitative" used by Berelson is also restrictive. Although quantification is important in many scientific endeavors, qualitative methods have proven successful particularly in extracting intelligence from propaganda (Krippendorff, 1980).

According to Kerlinger (477: 1986), content analysis studies and analyses communications in a systematic, objective and quantitative manner to measure variables. The recent greatly increased use of content analysis, has been to measure variables that could not have been measured without it and that its most important characteristic is its general applicability.

Comparing the three definitions of content analysis by the three different authors, Krippendorff's (1980), and Kerlinger's (1986) are similar and more inclusive than that of Berelson (1952). This study has therefore adopted Krippendorff's and Kerlinger's definitions.

There are however, other authors such as Taylor and Bogdan (1984) Bailey (1982) who give some guidelines for doing a content analysis. Such guidelines are also followed in this study and are explained below .

4.11.2 Categories

Firstly, the universe of the content analysis had to be identified. This consisted of all the verbal replies from the respondents. Then a set of categories were constructed. Categories for content analysis are generally not derived from theory or constructed from thin air but by examining documents to be studied (Bailey, 1982: 315 - 316; Kerlinger, 1986; Nel, 1988). In the case of this study, the subheadings of the questionnaire, such as strategy, management style, communication, etc., which made up the parameters for the interview schedule were considered in the categorisation. The transcribed tape recorded responses and the notes from documentary sources were examined for commonalities and categorised. The unit of analysis although decided upon, had not yet emerged at this stage.

4.11.3 Unit of Analysis

The unit of analysis used for the interview responses was the theme. The researcher looked for themes as he examined the transcribed data. These data were read over and over to establish the key thoughts. Any important ideas the researcher came across as he read the data were recorded. Emerging themes through conversation topics, recurring activities and meanings were identified. The researcher realised that determining the boundary of a theme was difficult and this could result in low inter-coder reliability. To minimise this limitation, the researcher employed the services of the editor who made an independent search for themes. The two independent findings were compared and reconciled to come up with the most relevant themes. The guiding principle for selecting the themes was that they meet the objectives of the study.

4.11.4 Classification Schemes

This is the step at which the unit of analysis and themes, were classified. This procedure was again facilitated by a detailed examination of the subheadings of the questionnaire schedule referred to above. Some of the themes identified, such as, 'concern for others', do not appear as the subheadings of the questionnaire schedule. They, however, came out from the responses and were suitably described as such with the help of the editor.

The division of the interviewees into different classes such as management, and employees of different levels also facilitated the analysis; it helped identify the different types of informants.

The identification and classification of themes was done manually, firstly, because the number of interviewees was very small, particularly when one considers that employees were interviewed in groups and not as individuals. In fact, there were only three interviews for the employees from each company because the researcher had set to interview three levels of employees, the skilled, semi-skilled, and the unskilled, in each company. This, therefore, resulted in 21 sets of interviews of employees for the whole study. The number of chief executives interviewed totalled 7 for the whole study. Departmental managers were also interviewed individually. The total number of interviews conducted for the whole study was, in fact, less than 70. It was, therefore, unnecessary to use a computer program for analysing the data of this size.

Secondly, the use of computer content analysis is complicated and tricky when the theme is used as the unit of analysis; the analysis by computer is easier when the unit of analysis is the 'word' (Kerlinger, 1986).

The quantitative data from the semantic differential and from the observation chart were, however, analysed by the computer program, the Statistical Analysis Systems (SAS), because they were of a higher volume than those of the interviews. In the case of data collection through the use of the questionnaire, each employee from the group of those interviewed was provided with a questionnaire and this resulted in more responses than those for the interview. The last phase in the analysis of data was discounting the data which were irrelevant for use by the study.

4.11.5 Discounting Data

Data were interpreted in the context in which they were collected. Some of the data could not be fitted into the categories because they had no bearing on the themes; they were, therefore, discarded. In achieving this, a number of other considerations were taken into account as follows:

4.11.6 Direct and Indirect Data

In the analysis of data for this study, both direct and indirect statements bearing on a theme were noted.

4.11.7 Sources

Special attention has been given to the sources of data on which interpretation has been based. The researcher followed the approach of Bogdan and Taylor (1984), and Bailey (1982), of looking to key informants, such as the chief executives, for critical insights but he at the same time distinguished between perspectives held by one person and those of a broader group of people.

4.11.8 Techniques Used to Analyse Quantitative Data

Quantitative data are shown as Appendix G and these were analysed with the use of Statistical Analysis (SAS) at the Computer Services Centre of UNISA. The researcher had the alternative choice of using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) but had to use the (SAS) program after considering the following reasons:

These systems are often used for analysing data and both provide good report writing (SAPS Users' Guide, 1982 Edition; & Frude, 1987). However, some mention has to be made of the characteristics of each system as these affect the user.

The encyclopedic nature of the manuals of the SPSS prove difficult to those wishing to be familiar with the system. The SPSS manual does not attempt to teach the use of SPSS (Frude, 1987). On the other hand, the SAS is reputed for its ease to use. One does not need to know everything in SAS manuals in order to use SAS. In fact 90% of the SAS jobs use only 10% of the information (SAS Users' Guide, 1982 Edition; Herzberg, 1990). The researcher, therefore, preferred to use the SAS program because of its advantages mentioned above. In analysing the data with the SAS, the respondents to the questionnaires were coded as follows:

Status of Employee	Code
Chief executive	1
Departmental manager	2
Skilled employee	3
Semi-skilled employee	4
Unskilled employee	5

T-test statistics have been used to measure the relationship of the responses of management and employees. The Anova Test has been used to measure the relationships among the responses of employees at the different levels of positions within companies , and the Duncan's Test for variability has been used to compare the responses between the companies. In the analysis of the data from the observation chart, the Chi-square test statistic has been used to find the association among the companies. The data from this chart has three measures (1, 2, & 3) and the Chi-square statistic is the best for use in such data.

The next chapter reports the results of the study.

RESULTS OF THE STUDY

5.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter results of the study only are presented, their discussion is done in Chapter 6. The results reported here are the responses from the interviews conducted, the questionnaires for the semantic differential, and the other for the observation chart. Both the interview schedule and the questionnaire used to elicit the answers from the respondents were designed to satisfy the objectives of the study.

The results are discussed in three sections as follows:

5.1.1 Results from the Interviews

For this section, a content analysis of the responses of the interviews has been made by listing the themes of what was mentioned about each company. The themes were categorised and counted. The comments made by interviewees were sorted into six main categories as follows:

- a. **strategy:** activities undertaken by the companies to achieve the successes they have attained.
- b. **management of human resources:** this includes, the management style used by the company, common practices by the company (culture), such as

promotion from within, provision of job security, working conditions, benefits and rewards.

- c. **communication:** meetings, communication with employees (workers' committees), in-house magazines, and memos.
- d. **organisational structure:** decentralisation or centralisation of decision making.
- e. **concern for others:** social responsibility
- f. **major achievements by the company:** profitability, expansion, rationalisation.

Direct words of respondents are quoted in some cases to highlight the themes. After the results of each company are given, a summary of the results of all the companies is given indicating the numbers of companies responding to a particular theme.

5.1.2 Results from the Semantic Differential

This section deals with results from the quantitative questionnaire. These results are meant to complement the results from the interviews. The responses from the quantitative questionnaire have been analysed with the use of Statistical Analysis Systems (SAS), at the UNISA computer services center. The t-tests have been calculated to show if there is any relationship between the responses of the employees and management and the anova has been calculated to show if there is any relationship between management, skilled employees, semi-skilled employees, and unskilled employees. A table is given for each analysis and a written explanation is made below each table to clarify the meaning of the contents of the table to the reader. Any confirmation or contradiction of the responses from the interview by the quantitative results is discussed in the next chapter.

5.1.3 Results from the Observation Charts

This section presents the results from what was observed of the companies. These results reflect the culture of the companies, those things which are acceptable and are part of the common practice in the companies studied. Data in this section like in the second one, have also been analysed with the use of SAS.

All the three sections of the results stated above are direct responses of the questions designed to satisfy the objectives of the study.

5.2 RESPONDENTS TO THE INTERVIEW BY COMPANY

A total of 408 interviewees from the seven companies studied is given in the table below.

TABLE 5.1 RESPONDENTS TO THE INTERVIEW

Name of Company	C.E.O.	Departmental Manager	Skilled Workers	Semi-Skilled Workers	Unskilled Workers
PGI	1	7	24	40	36
APEX	1	4	15	25	23
ART CORP.	1	4	-	-	-
TSL	1	6	22	34	40
NTS	1	5	5	18	10
SPINWEAVE	1	6	8	9	11
DELTA - OK	1	6	10	15	18
TOTAL	7	38	84	141	138

The chief executives and departmental managers were interviewed individually, whereas the skilled, semi-skilled, and unskilled employees were interviewed in groups of their respective levels per company. The researcher would like to note that he was denied permission to interview the employees of Art Corporation. He interviewed the representative of the chief executive and four managers as shown in the table above.

The results of the companies are reported in the order in which the companies appear in the table above.

5.3 PG INDUSTRIES

5.3.1 Strategy

The success of the company is attributed to the quality of products and customer service. This is what some interviewees said:

Apart from the value for money, I think the most important thing a customer wants is quick delivery. If a customer wants something tomorrow, he wants it tomorrow. We deliver anywhere in Zimbabwe. We have a very large fleet of transport. Our competitors open their doors and wait for their customers but we go there and knock on their doors and say, how can we help you." (Middlemost: Group Managing Director - PGI: (Middlemost : Interview 9/1/95).

"We believe in giving quality to our customers." (Majokwere: 9/1/95).

The company's strengths which help it to achieve its success include: a good financial base, good industrial relations, good communication between the managers and the workers, a distribution network spread all over the country and a skilled work force.

5.3.2 Management of Human Resources

The style of management was described as democratic, and this involves consulting, other managers and involving them in the making of decisions. Commenting on his style of management the Group Managing Director said his philosophy was:

.... to try and keep the pieces together and delegate well. I do not tell my subordinates what to do, I like to see what they are doing and how they are doing it. I try to use my forty years of experience

as a means of developing people. We use an informal style of management and are easy going. I don't think I am an autocrat; I am a democrat. I consult before making a decision. I believe in openness" (Middlemost Group Managing Director: Interview : 9/1/95).

We coordinate by sitting down at table together to discover what happens (Middlemost : interview 9/1/95).

5.3.3 Hiring of Employees

When hiring employees the company considers educational qualifications, experience and personality.

- **Employee Appraisal:** Employees are appraised once a year and emphasis is placed on promotion from within the company.
- **Benefits:** The company has incentive schemes including bonuses, worker of the year, and management of the year awards. The company pays above average salaries and wages.
- **Training of employees:** There is in house training for employees. Workers committees too are trained so that they become conversant with their role.
- **Education Assistance:** The company has an educational assistance policy. employees who pass an examination for an approved course of study are reimbursed their tuition expenses in full.

5.3.4 Communication

Communication among the managers is informal. There are, however, some scheduled meetings for progress review, and for the setting of plans and strategies.

We believe and maintain, frequent dialogue to improve work place communication. Joint consultation through Divisional and Group Works Council Meetings is an invaluable channel of formal communication. We also encourage informal discussions at all levels of management and their staff, with the aim of developing team and speedy resolutions work related problems (Annual Report, 1993 - PG).

5.3.5 Dissatisfaction with Workers' Committee

The employees interviewed, however, expressed some dissatisfaction with the workers' committees which they felt did not adequately communicate some of their problems to Management.

5.3.6 Decision Making

The decision making is both centralised and decentralised as has been aptly described by one of the executives of the company as follows:

We have a mixture of consensus and delegation. Our decision making is in strata, it is decentralised in certain areas of management. It is difficult to make a cut off line (Mujaji -Managing Director : PG Manufacturing-interview 9/195).

The company has branches spread throughout the country. Geographically, it is decentralised.

5.3.7 Concern for Others (Social Responsibility)

This company gives donations to charitable institutions such as Jairos Jiri, provides transport to the Government to assist in the Food Relief program, gives seedlings

to the District Councils to plant trees, and is currently sponsoring a PhD student studying in the area of timber.

It also encourages its customers through a competition it sponsors on television.

In our advertising campaign we have a commercial competition in which any customer who has bought goods to the value of at least \$100 can enter. It's done on a second Monday of every month on T.V. in all the towns where we have branches. The selected customer spins a wheel and the prize to be won reflects a day of the week. If the prize falls on a Sunday, it goes to a charitable institution but if it falls on any other day of the week, the customer gets it (Interviewee :17/1/95).

5.3.8 Major Achievements of the Company

The company has increased its profits and has expanded some of its divisions and opened a branch in Mutare.

5.4 APEX CORPORATION - PHOENIX

5.4.1 Strategy

This company attributes its success to the improved quality of its products, good workmanship and good morale. The other strengths of the company consist of a good financial base, good customer service, experience, good leadership, set procedures and systems. There is closeness to the customer as reflected in the following excerpt from what one chief executive said:

We constantly liaise with our customers by sending them a survey every quarter for them to assess the quality of our product and delivery service.

We have the ability to convert 74% - 76% of our orders into delivery within 24 hours (Interviewee : 12/1/95: Marketing Manager).

The company has management review meetings every morning. The purpose of the meetings is to look at what needs to be done to improve production and services. Actual performance is compared with planned performance. Strategies are set at these management meetings.

5.4.2 Management of Human Resources

There was consensus among management interviewees that the style of management is democratic or participative. Major decisions are made by consensus at management level. The terms 'democratic' and 'participative', however, need to be qualified because key decisions are made at management level at these daily meetings without the shop floor workers.

5.4.3 Hiring of Employees

When hiring employees for employment, the company considers experience and educational qualifications. Selection is done by personnel manager in conjunction with the head of department.

5.4.4 Appraisal of Employees

Appraisal is done once a year by the head of department through looking at the service record.

5.4.5 Benefits : Housing Loans

The benefits mentioned by management interviewees included a housing loan available to employees on application.

5.4.6 Education Assistance

Employees can also benefit from an educational assistance policy, involving upgrading through the writing of examinations of their choice. Under this policy an employee is reimbursed for all his/her tuition fees paid on passing the examination.

5.4.7 Employee Training

There is also in-house training for employees. This is meant to upgrade the skills of employees. All levels of employees are eligible for training. Machine operators are trained soon after being hired.

5.4.8 Communication

Communication among managers is very regular through daily meetings. However, meetings with workers are conducted once every month. It is through such monthly meetings that workers are briefed of the performance of the company. The values of the company are disseminated to the workers at these meetings. The employees also get a chance of airing their concerns and grievances at such meetings.

Memos and circulars are used to inform employees about any new developments. There are other informal means of communication between management and

employees : To illustrate this point, the marketing manager of the company, for example, said :

Sometimes I walk through the work place just to have a feel of what is happening and through that I am bound to notice what ever is significant (Madzikana : Apex - Phoenix 11/1/95: interview).

5.4.9 Organisational Structure

This relates to authority/responsibility relationships (Koontz et al, 1991). The decision making in the companies is both centralised and decentralised. The decisions concerning policy matters are made at the highest level of management. Decisions pertaining to the running of departments and for day to day activities are made at the relevant departments. The company has branches all over the country. Centralisation or decentralisation may also have geographical connotations. The branches however, have to get approval from head office before they can implement any key decision which has major financial implications.

5.4.10 Achievements in the Last Five Years

All the management interviewees reported an increase in profits over the last five years.

5.4.11 Concern for Other People

The company sponsors some local football teams and donates some money to charitable institutions, such as schools for the disabled. The main activity of social responsibility undertaken by the company, is the sponsoring of a street cleaning

competition at the city of Harare. A quote below from the local newspaper confirms the activities of the company concerning street cleaning:

The competition for the Harare 'Street Cleaner of the Year' is a joint venture between the City of Harare and Apex Corporation, who have accepted an invitation to sponsor the competition.

This competition will be an annual event with a prize giving ceremony each December, Quarterly prize giving will, however, also be held to enable hardworking cleaners to be rewarded during the year (Commerce, July 1994).

5.4.12 Security of Employment

All the employees of the company had no fears at all for their security. They expressed confidence in the company to provide stable employment.

5.4.13 Dissatisfaction with Remuneration and Working Conditions

The unskilled employees of the company expressed some dissatisfaction with the wages paid by the company.

Our salaries have been the same right through, Z\$127/week for three years of service. Also here, people are given long service awards but the money paid for that is very little Z\$80, and it has been like that since inception (unskilled employees : 11/1/95).

There is a provision for us to get loans to build houses but we hardly get that money. When you apply and later you try to find out about your application, they tell you, "My friend, we have submitted your application to Head Office." (Apex:- skilled employees - interview: 12/1/95).

5.4.14 Employee Ignorance of Some Benefits

Unskilled employees of this company did not know about the educational assistance policy.

They don't pay for our education. We don't know about it.
(Employees : 12/1/95 Interview)

5.5 ART CORPORATION

5.5.1 Strategy

This company had to employ a turn around strategy to survive open competition brought about by the Economic Structural Adjustment Programme (ESAP).

Zimbabwean companies were not used to open competition. Therefore, as a result of the introduction of the Economic Structural Adjustment Programme, many companies went to the wall because their management was not geared for competition; they had insufficient skills. We had to apply a turn around strategy to survive (Dr Manhere : interview: 17/195).

As part of the turn around strategy this company closed down some of its peripheral activities to concentrate on those which are profitable. The responses of management were also confirmed by the reports in the company's annual report.

It says:

The speciality Converting department of labels, PVC stationary, diaries and GLAD brand products are also able to take advantage of the rationalisation of the operations. Each has their niche in the market which through improved sales and marketing directions are

well placed to show further growth in 1994 (Art Corporation Annual Report : 1993).

5.5.2 Management of Human Resources

The response from departmental managers was that the company uses a participative style of management to a certain extent. The management approach was however, still a top down one. Group management made major decisions. Branches made decisions for day to day operations.

5.5.3 Hiring and Promotion of Employees

When hiring, the company looks for qualifications and experience in the candidate. Promotion from within is also emphasised here. However, if there is no candidate from within to fill the vacancy, recruitment is done outside.

5.5.4 Incentives to Employees:

The company expressed its concern about giving incentives to employees thus:

We believe in the creation of a good working environment which will result in the greatest possible employee motivation. In order to achieve this objective, we have put into place several Worker of the Month, Worker of the Year, Department of the Month, Communicator of the Year, and Long Service Awards. Our Art Group Employees' Trust has instilled in our employees a great sense of belonging and brings them good financial rewards (Art Corporation Annual Report: 1993).

5.5.5 Organisational Structure

The decision making in the company is generally centralised. Branches decide on day to day operations and major decisions are made at Head Office.

5.5.6 Concern for Others

The company donates money to charitable institutions such as Jairos Jiri, annually.

Employees were not interviewed at this company.

5.6 TSL LIMITED

5.6.1 Strategy

The company always looks out for opportunity:

We look at where we are, where we are going, and how we getting there. The underlying principle is hard work and a clear vision (Rennie: Transport Services Manager- TSL: - Interview- 16/1/95).

The stability now prevailing in the region is the main point of focus in the company's plans. The company is beginning to look at the markets in South Africa and Mozambique. A match between the company's strategy and business culture is sought.

5.6.2 Concern with Service to Customers

The company is renowned for its good customer service.

Commenting about the attributes of success of the company the Managing Director of TSL LTD said:

We work 24 hours a day whereas other companies work 10 hours. We work 7 days a week whereas our competitors work five days a week. We have as a result improved our profits every year for the past five years. (Black - Managing Director: -Interview: 19/1/95).

The underlying theme here has been hard work. We are a company where people are available. They don't come up here and put up their coats and disappear. They have something to do. We have a situation in which people get job satisfaction (Rennie : Transport Services Manager:- Interview : 11/1/95).

The emphasis of quality and the value of service is reflected even in the mission statements of the company. A portion of the mission statement of TSL reads as follows:

To strive for continued improvement in the **Quality and Value** of the **Products and Services** we offer our customers (TSL Limited Annual Report 1993: 3).

5.6.3 Expansion to External Markets

TSL management was engaged in plans to expand to foreign markets.

We are gearing ourselves to earn more foreign currency because of the expansion of our market. Our aim is indigenisation of the work force. We have not been dealing very much with the outside market. Our strategy is to exhaust the internal market first and then move out. We welcome criticisms from clients (Rennie - Bak Storage-TSL -13/1/95).

5.6.4 Management of Human Resources

People matter in this company. The manpower base is developed at all levels. The style of management was described by management as dynamic and informal, one of consultation. According to responses by management interviewees, the company has an open policy of management; employees can talk to anyone at any level.

At this company, everybody is encouraged to make their own view
(Transport Manager: - Interview :- 13/195).

5.6.5 Hiring of Employees

The company looks in- house first, to see if there is anyone who can fill the position.

We employ people with adequate qualifications (Rennie - Transport manager - TSL - BAK STORAGE : Interview 13/1/95).

5.6.6 Promotion

The factors important for the promotion of employees in this company are:

- personality;
- performance;
- educational qualifications.

According to management:

The key principles are promotion from within. Many managers within the company have been grown from within; this serves as an

incentive to other workers within the firm (Bak Storage- Managing Director: Interview- 18/1/95).

5.6.7 Employee Appraisal

Employees are appraised at least once a year by their supervisors. This is done through looking at the service record of each employee.

5.6.8 Discharge of an Employee

This is done only when an employee has transgressed an agreed code of conduct or for incompetence or liability.

5.6.9 Benefits Provided Employees

The company offers free meals at the company canteen and it has an education assistance for all its workers. The salary scale for the workers is higher than that for most firms in the industry.

We have always endeavored to pay above the minimum wage (Mr Black: Managing Director : TSL -Bak Storage :interview 18/1/95).

A part of the mission statement of the company states the following:

To provide **EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITIES** for our people that include the opportunity to share in their company's success which they help make possible to provide job security based on performance and the opportunity for personal satisfaction in the accomplishment of their work (TSL Annual Report, 1992 : 6).

5.6.10 Training of Employees

In addition to the educational assistance policy, the company has in-house training for its employees. Employees at management level are encouraged to attend seminars and it is left to them to share with others when they have returned from the seminar. Members of the workers' committee are also sent for training at the Government Training Centre, Siberia House.

5.6.11 Communication

There are informal meetings at management level. There is an executive dining room where the top six of the company lunch together every afternoon. They hold informal discussions as they lunch together. One of the managers of the company said:

The top six meet once every week and we do not wait for scheduled meetings to discuss certain things. We make excessive use of radios (TSL - BAK STORAGE : Interview 12/1/95).

The relations with the workers' committee are good. Meetings are held every month between the workers' committee and management.

5.6.12 Major Achievements by the Company

The company has expanded rapidly and it has doubled its profits over the last five years.

We have growing problems because we have had rapid expansion. We need to expand our manpower base (Rennie- Bak Storage - TSL 13/1/95).

5.6.13 Concern for Others

The company donates to charitable institutions such as Jairos Jiri Association, an organisation for disabled people. A section of the Company's Annual Report states the following:

To meet the obligations of **GOOD CITIZENSHIP** by making contributions to the community and to the institutions in our society which generate the environment in which we operate (TSL- Annual Report, 1992 : 6).

There is job security in the company. Employees have no fears for any retrenchments because they know that the company is financially stable. Unskilled employees expressed overall satisfaction with the workers' committee. This is what they said:

When we have a problem, we go through the workers' committee. They discuss the problem among themselves and then they go to management. Most of the requests and concerns get attended to (employees : interview 13/1/95).

Skilled employees on the other hand, were not satisfied with the way their immediate superiors communicated with them. They felt that their concerns were not communicated to senior management by those to whom they reported.

Some of our grievances we submit to top management perish along the line. Or someone might sit on your grievance or buy time just to protect his job. Sometimes you can inform a top manager about your grievance through grapevine-like you meet him in a bar and say to him, "I talked to so and so to let you know about this and that", you will be surprised to discover that this man does not know a thing (Interview 13/1/95).

The skilled workers further mentioned that they are not represented by the workers committee because they are regarded as part of management.

We are never consulted on a number of matters even those affecting us. We do not have a representative in the works council because we are regarded as part of management but we do not get the benefits that managers get. We eat in the same canteen with top management alright, but there is no such thing as overtime. Those who are below us are even worse off. (Interview 13/1/95).

5.7 NATIONAL TYRE SERVICE (NTS)

5.7.1 Strategy

The Managers of this company attribute the success enjoyed by the company to the good working relations they have with their workers, a happy environment, good customer relations and a high quality service.

Strengths of the company as stated by the interviewees were a good backup service, good workmanship by experienced workers.

Quality of service is the major thing in any business today. If you don't have a good service, regardless of how good your product is, you are not going to make it. We have a good service and also a backup service. We also have good relations with customers as a result of our service to them. (General Manager: NTS 25/1/95).

The chief executive stated that the company has had some problems getting foreign currency in the past, to buy sophisticated equipment. The government had imposed some restrictions on the allocation of foreign currency. Now however, the

restrictions are no longer there; old equipment will have to be replaced with new equipment.

5.7.2 Management of Human Resources

The management style adopted by the company is described as participative.

"We believe in openness and we treat our workers with respect".

5.7.3 Communication Within the Company

The company has management seminars at which all its branches meet, 5 times a year. Policies, plans and strategies are discussed every quarter of the year. At this company like in all other companies in the country, there are workers' committee whose work is to represent workers' interests. Formal meetings with all the workers are there once a month.

5.7.4 Organisational Structure

The company is geographically decentralised. Decisions concern policy are however, centralised.

"Policy matters are centralised. Discounts, for example, cannot be given by the branch without the approval of Head Office" (Interviewee: 23/1/95).

5.7.5 Concern for Others

The company donates to charitable institutions. The budget for this purpose is kept at Head Office.

5.7.6 Security of Employment

All the employees mentioned that there is:

1. good security of employment in the company and
2. that bonuses are given to them for work well done.

5.7.7 Major Achievements by The Company

The interviewees responded that the company has increased its profits over the past few years and it has also expanded its operations. This was confirmed by the chairman's report in the 1993 Annual Report of the company. It says:-

In December 1992 another retail outlet was opened in Karoi, operating from leased premises. A new warehouse of 540 square meters is presently being constructed at the KweKwe premises to provide secure storage facilities for the larger earthmoving tyres specially imported for the Mining and Construction Industry (National Tyre Services Limited - Annual Report 1993).

5.8 SPINWEAVE

5.8.1 Strategy

The company emphasises the quality of products and differentiates its product from that of its competitors. This is what is termed differential advantage. As one interviewee put it:

We don't compete head on with our competitors. We try to make our product as different as possible. The quality of our product is good but we still want to improve it further (Interviewee, 20/1/95).

The company was found to be differentiating its product or service from that of its competitors. The management try to make the company to satisfy the need not satisfied by other companies.

There is an awareness that consumers need a certain level of quality and therefore the company strategy is geared towards improving the quality of the product.

5.8.2 Management of Human Resources

Two branches of this company were visited. At one of these companies morale among almost all the employees and some departmental managers was very low. According to one departmental manager, directives are given from top management and one can be fired at any time. Meetings are held everyday but they are only production oriented. The chief executive described his style of management as participative.

5.8.3 Hiring of Employees

Educational qualifications and experience are considered in the selection of employees. Most of the shop floor employees are, however trained in the company.

5.8.4 Training of Employees

Technicians are brought in from outside by the company to train machine operators. Consultants are also hired by the company to give advice on the improvement of

products. At management level, there is a provision for employees to go and attend seminars or refresher courses outside the company.

5.8.5 Incentives Given Employees

The company pays a bonus on a weekly basis.

5.8.6 Communication

Communication with employees is done through their departments and once a month through the workers' committee.

5.8.7 Organisational Structure

Decision making is both centralised and decentralised. Major decisions are made by top management.

5.8.8 Major Achievements by the Company:

Management respondents reported that the company has expanded within the last five years.

5.8.9 Concern for Other People

Respondents mentioned that the company sponsors football teams and helps the surrounding community which has poor living conditions by repairing their houses.

5.9 DELTA - OK

5.9.1 Strategy

According to the responses from management, this company attributes its success to the quality of service it provides its customers. The general manager said:

Our stakeholders are taken seriously. We want to establish good relations with our customers and suppliers. Customer service, handling of customer complaints are paramount in our activities. Where quality is in question, it's quality first or your money back (Matemavi : Interview 15/1/95).

The respondents in general attributed the success of the company to their awareness of customer needs.

Our customers require quality products, customer service, and convenience. We always look for opportunity (Administration Manager - Interview: 15/1/95).

5.9.2 Awareness of Competition

The respondents showed that they are aware of the threats to the company's success and they, therefore, work systematically to keep ahead and remain dominant in the industry:

Competition is going to be stiffer. The region is getting stabler with South Africa being independent and Mozambique becoming peaceful. We get competition from every vendor, every store (Gen. Manager: Interview- 15/1/95).

5.9.3 Management of Human Resources

There was consensus among management respondents that success depends on management. The philosophy of management as explained by the branch manager was that of managing by democracy. The key idea according to the manager is to empower people. Commenting on his philosophy of management he had this to say:

Success depends on manpower. A person who does the job has to make the decisions that go with the job. If you empower people, you go from strength to strength as a company. The group embarked on the idea that they should empower their managers to make major decisions. (Branch Manager: Interview 13/1/95).

Our management style is democratic. The environment puts pressure for changes; we are getting more and more educated and qualified workers and our management style has to suit such people (Administration Manager ; OK :- Interview : 16/1/95).

When hiring employees, the company considers qualifications and experience. The minimum qualification required by the company from anyone who seeks employment with it is five 'O' levels. Promotion from within is emphasised. Recruitment is done only when there are no people to fill the existing positions.

5.9.4 Appraisal of Employees

Employees are appraised twice a year. Supervisors do the evaluation. An employee is called into the office by the supervisor to discuss his evaluation.

5.9.5 Promotion

Promotions are based on the ability to do the work and are mostly from within the company. Some managers interviewed in the company started at lower levels and had been promoted to the present positions, for example, the administration manager and the branch manager.

"We promote on merit but you never fail to get a dissenting voice here and there" Branch Manager : Interview: - 15/1/95).

5.9.6 Benefits

The benefits given employees consist of **bonuses, merit increments, long service awards, manager of the year award, staff discounts** for purchases made by employees and **subsidised canteen meals**.

Commenting on the bonuses given employees at the end of the year, the general manager said:

Our policy is that our employees should share company profits as well (Matemavi: - Interview- 15/1/95).

5.9.7 Educational Assistance

All the employees are entitled to educational assistance. Tuition fees paid by an employee for an approved course of study are reimbursed in full.

5.9.8 Employee Training

The employees of the company are given customer education. There is in-house training for employees at all levels in the form of seminars conducted by Head Office. As a result of this training, the company employees are very competent. "Some of our employees are so competent that we can't promote them anymore" (Branch Manager : Ok- 15/1/05).

5.9.9 Communication

There are management review meetings every morning; all heads of departments meet together with the general manager. In the afternoon the heads of departments meet with their supervisors and the supervisors in turn meet with the workers to discuss the performance results.

When you came in this morning, I had a meeting with departmental managers trying to find out what problems they meet. In the afternoon these managers will have a review meeting with their supervisors, rolling down the information they have got. Supervisors in turn meet the subordinates. Review meetings are done daily. I go to head Office every Monday to meet with my area manager (Interview 15/1/95).

We roll down the information on a day to day basis. This process of meetings enables us to coordinate. We meet every morning. Meetings cannot be a bore if people present their plans and review their performance. Heads of departments present check lists and we compare plans with actual performance, for example, sales banked for each section are compared with the target plan. If there is a variance we try to find out why we did not do as well as we planned, and if there is a surplus we seek to find out what made us do well and how we can improve (Sales Manager:- Interview: 17/1/95).

Meetings are held every month between management and the workers' committee. Workers problems are addressed at such meetings. Management values the idea of workers' committees and acknowledges the workers' valuable input through this structure. Workers committees are trained within the company so that they become well acquainted with their role.

Commenting on the usefulness of the workers' committees, the branch manager said:

To me they are very valuable. They have a way of bridging the gap between management and employees. We get a contribution from them as well. There are seminars conducted by our head office for workers committees (interview 15/1/95).

The needs of the employees are known through openness with workers' committees; their grievances are dealt with. Through management by walking around we get to know what our workers want (Matemavi - Ok : JN : interview 15/1/95).

5.9.10 Organisational Structure

The decision making is both decentralised and centralised:

Explaining the reason for this structure: The Administration manager said:

Challenges are not the same at different levels. Some decisions have to be made at the highest level and others at the low levels. However, centralising all decisions cannot influence better performance (Administration manager:- 17/1/95).

Each branch makes its own target. We are scattered all over. Major policy decisions have to come from the top (Matemavi : interview - 15/1/95).

Power given to lower levels, such as branches is however, not as much as some executives would like. The administration manager of the branch commented to this effect and said:

There are certain decisions we would like to make but we do not have the powers. Permission has to be granted by Head Office for the employment of additional staff (Interview: 17/1/95).

5.9.11 Major Achievements by the Company : Expansion

The company opened up eight branches in the high density suburbs within the last five years, for the convenience of customers ; the company brings its products to the customers and saves them travelling costs to towns. Sales increased and profitability increased remarkably over the last five years..

5.9.12 Problems Associated with Growth

As a result of this expansion, the company has problems related to growth, such as the staffing of general personnel, and managers. "It takes time to develop managers and as a result we are recruiting graduates from the local university to be trained as managers (Matemavi: - Interview- 15/1/95).

"We still haven't exhausted all the opportunities. We are not yet in every town" Matemavi: - Interview- 15/95).

5.9.13 Concern for Others

The company contributes to the mayor's cheer fund. The branch manager mentioned the following to describe their contribution to the fund:

During the Christmas Season, in every town where our stores are located, we invite the mayor to get into one of our stores to collect as much as he can of our goods, for three minutes. This is one of the ways we contribute to charity. This fund helps the needy in each town (Branch Manager:- OK- J.N:- Interview 15/1/95).

5.9.14 Cases of Conflicting Attitudes To Customer Service

There were cases cited that revealed the occurrence of certain situations of conflict that arose from differences in management's and employees' attitudes to customer service.

I just like management; they always share ideas with us. There are however, certain times when things go wrong. I don't see them (management) looking at both sides of the story. A problem involving a customer and a worker results in the worker suffering (Credit Supervisor OK - JN:- Interview 15/1/95).

A similar view was expressed by unskilled employees.

Workers committees represent us but they have very little powers. There was an incident in 1991 when the chairman of the workers' committee closed the doors of the shop when customers were still coming in after 7:00 p.m. during a festive season. He closed the doors in protest that we were working long hours and no overtime was paid us. The workers committee chairman was fired (unskilled employees: - interview- 17/1/95).

The employees expressed dissatisfaction at the under-staffing of the company. They felt the effects of this particularly during peak seasons when they have to work

overtime and they would be told by management that they would get off-days for their overtime. Some expressed concern that they have accumulated weeks of off-days and they have not been given their entitlement.

This dissatisfaction however, confirms the view that the powers of managers at branches are limited. They have to petition for an authorisation from Head Office to increase their staff.

Unskilled employees were not aware of the existence of the educational assistance policy.

5.9.15 Summary of the Qualitative Results

This section summarises the results of the qualitative research by stating the common themes identified from the responses of all the interviewees of all the seven companies.

5.10 ATTRIBUTES COMMON TO ALL THE COMPANIES - A SUMMARY

5.10.1 Strategy

All the companies stated that they attribute their successes to the quality of products and services they provide their customers. **Customer care** is emphasised.

5.10.2 Management of Human Resources

The management styles of all the companies was described as informal, **participative** and **democratic**. The participative and democratic approach to the making of decisions was however, done at management level. Even though the senior management of one of the companies, (company number 6 according to the table at the beginning of this chapter) responded that the company was participative and democratic, some managers and employees responded that the company was directive. They expressed a lot of dissatisfaction that some of the decisions affecting them were made unilaterally by senior management. An example they gave as one of the sources of their unhappiness was that of the refusal of senior management to provide the company with a personnel manager.

5.10.3 Hiring of Human Resources

The candidate who got the job from the companies had to have the best qualification and experience.

5.10.4 Appraisal of Employees

This is formal and is done at least once a year and **promotion** from within is emphasised.

5.10.5 Training of Employees

All the companies train their employees and six out of the seven studied have an educational assistance policy. This training and educational assistance is for improving the skills of the employees. As a result, all the companies boasted of

having the most highly skilled work force in their respective industries. The kind of training common amongst these companies is on the job. At other times the employees are sent out for short courses or to attend seminars.

5.10.6 Benefits for Employees

All the companies reward their employees with bonuses at the end of the year. One company has a weekly bonus. Three of the seven companies studied have worker of the year and manager of the year awards.

5.10.7 Workers' Committees

All the companies have workers' committees. This structure is however, the result of government legislation, Labour Relations (Workers Committees) (General) Regulations, 1985. However, six of the companies studied take their own initiative to train workers committees to enhance their effectiveness.

An excerpt of the Workers Committee General Regulations reads as follows:

- (1) Every employee shall have the right to participate in the formation of a workers committee and to undertake tasks on behalf of a workers committee.
- (2) A workers committee shall be formed when a group of employees of any one employer appoint or elect some of the employees to represent them at their place of work.
- (3) Employees of one employer shall form only one workers committee.

- (4) A workers committee shall comprise of not less than three and not more than fifteen members who shall be representative of the different sections of the undertaking concerned.
- (5) Members of a workers committee shall, from among themselves, elect -
 - (a) a chairman who shall be responsible for presiding over all the meetings;
 - (b) a secretary who shall be responsible for taking minutes in a meeting and for keeping any records that the chairman may require to be kept.

Meetings

The procedure to be followed by a workers committee at its meetings shall be as simple and as informal as possible and a workers committee shall act in such manner and on such principles as it deems best suited to represent the interests of the workers whom it represents.

Works Council

A workers committee shall elect some of its members to represent the employees on a works council at the request of the chairman of a workers council

5.10.8 Communication within the Companies

Meetings are a typical feature in these companies. The frequency of the management review meetings is either daily or weekly. It is at these meetings that strategies are planned and the performances are reviewed.

Meetings between management and the workers' committees are held at least once a month in all the companies. This has the effect of harmonizing relationships

between management and the work force. In all the companies studied, none of them reported any serious problems with workers; there was no report of any strike in the previous five years.

However, in two of the companies, unskilled employees were not aware of the educational policy within their companies. Generally, the information the employees had in all the companies tended to increase proportionately with the levels of their positions. Workers at the skilled level tended to know more about company policies than those at the unskilled level. This could be attributed to the varied access the different levels of employees have to management. Skilled employees are closer to management in their day to day contacts than the unskilled employees. Also management meetings with some skilled employees are held more frequently than with employees in general. In two of the companies studied, management meets with employees only once a month.

5.10.9 Major Achievements by the companies:

Six of the companies studied reported expansion in their operations and increases in their profits over the previous five years. The only company that did not report an expansion was in the paper industry. This company however, made some improvements in its profits after it had implemented a turn around strategy and had to cut down on its peripheral activities to concentrate on the more profitable operations. Some retrenchments had to be made in this company for it to survive the stiff competition which resulted from the introduction of ESAP.

The achievement of profitability and the expansion undertaken by six of the companies tallies with the criteria used in the selection of the companies for the study.

5.10.10 Employee Satisfaction

In all the companies studied, employees expressed satisfaction as far as job security is concerned. Fears of retrenchment were allayed by the confidence the employees had in the financial strengths of the companies.

However, in four of the seven companies studied the unskilled employees expressed dissatisfaction at the wages paid them.

5.11 RESULTS OF THE QUANTITATIVE QUESTIONNAIRE

5.11.1 Comparison of the Responses of Skilled, Semi-Skilled, and Unskilled Employees

This section presents the results of the semantic differential. The purpose of this questionnaire, as mentioned earlier, was to strengthen the validity of the data obtained through the interviews. The responses of the subjects were compared within the companies and between the companies to establish if there were any relationships among the different levels of the respondents within the company and between the companies.

This section of the results was analysed with the use of the Anova and the Duncan's Multiple Range Test for Variability. The differences between the responses of skilled, semi-skilled, and unskilled employees of the companies in connection with the semantic differential inquiring about the management style of the companies were measured.

The Anova is the most suitable analysis for a comparison among three or more variables. The values of the variables V1..to V10 in the semantic differential, range from 1 to 5 and are allocated as follows:

Very =1; Fairly = 2; Equally = 3; Fairly = 4; and Very = 5.

The results have been identified through the probabilities and the means indicated in the table. If the probability, shown in the last column of the table, is less than 0,05, the null hypothesis is rejected. It shows that there are differences at the 95% confidence interval between the different levels of respondents. Whereas, if the probability is greater than 0,05, it shows that the null hypothesis has to be accepted because there is no significant difference between the responses of the different subjects.

The number of employees who returned the completed questionnaire was 274 out of the 363 employees who were interviewed. This gives a response of 75%.

TABLE 5.2 DEPENDENT VARIABLE: V1 RIGID/FLEXIBLE

Source	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Value	Pr > F
Model	2	18.18529708	9.09264854	5.56	0.0042
Error	332	542.96694172	1.6354426		
Corrected Total	334	561.15223881			
	R-Square	C.V.	Root MSE		V1 Mean
	0.03241	40.11356	1.27884424		3.1880597
Source	DF	Type I SS	Mean Square	F Value	Pr > F
POSITION	2	18.18529708	9.09264854	5.56	0.0042
Source	DF	Type III SS	Mean Square	F Value	Pr > F
POSITION	2	18.18529708	9.09264854	5.56	0.0042

Duncan's Multiple Range Test for Variable: V1 (Rigid/Flexible)

Number of Means 2 3

Critical Range .3461 .3644

Means with the same letter are not significantly different.

Duncan grouping	Mean	N POSITION
A	3.6026	78 Skilled
B	3.1136	132 Semi-skilled
B	3.0080	125 Unskilled

V1 is one of the semantic differential questions asking the respondents whether they perceive the management style in their companies as Rigid/Flexible. The result of the analysis shows that there is a significant difference between the responses of skilled employees and those of semi-skilled and unskilled employees but there is no significant difference between those of semi-skilled and unskilled employees. The responses of the skilled employees indicate that the management style of the companies is close to being fairly flexible. On the other hand semi-skilled and unskilled employees indicate that the companies' management styles are equally rigid and equally flexible.

TABLE 5.3 DEPENDENT VARIABLE: V2 BUREAUCRATIC/ENTREPRENEURIAL

Source	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Value	Pr > F
Model	2	2.17506294	1.08753147	0.76	0.4687
Error	332	475.42493706	1.43200282		
Corrected Total	334	561.15223881			
	R-Square	C.V.	Root MSE		V2 Mean
	0.004554	37.39573	1.19666320		3.20000000
Source	DF	Type I SS	Mean Square	F Value	Pr > F
POSITION	2	2.17506294	1.08753147	0.76	0.4687
Source	DF	Type III SS	Mean Square	F Value	Pr > F
POSITION	2	2.17506294	1.08753147	0.76	0.4687

Duncan's Multiple Range Test for Variable: V2 (Bureaucratic/Entrepreneurial)

Number of Means 2 3

Critical Range .3239 .3410

Means with the same letter are not significantly different.

Duncan grouping	Mean	N POSITION
A	3.3462	78 Skilled
A	3.1591	132 Semi-skilled
A	3.1520	125 Unskilled

Concerning the variable inquiring whether the management style is bureaucratic or entrepreneurial, there is no significant difference among the three levels of positions of skilled, semi-skilled, and unskilled employees. The general response indicates that the management style of the companies is equally bureaucratic and equally entrepreneurial.

TABLE 5.4 DEPENDENT VARIABLE: V3 DECISIVE/INDECISIVE

Source	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Value	Pr > F
Model	2	0.46443851	0.23221925	0.17	0.8473
Error	332	465.01615851	1.40065108		
Corrected Total	334	465.48059701			
	R-Square	C.V.	Root MSE		V3 Mean
	0.000998	47.88279	1.18349106		2.47164179
Source	DF	Type I SS	Mean Square	F Value	Pr > F
POSITION	2	0.46443851	0.23221925	0.17	0.8473
Source	DF	Type III SS	Mean Square	F Value	Pr > F
POSITION	2	0.46443851	0.23221925	0.17	0.8473

Duncan's Multiple Range Test for Variable: V3 (Decisive/Indecisive)

Number of Means 2 3
Critical Range .3203 .3372

Means with the same letter are not significantly different.

Duncan grouping	Mean	N POSITION
A	2.4231	78 Skilled
A	2.5152	132 Semi-skilled
A	2.4560	125 Unskilled

All the employees the skilled, semi-skilled, and the unskilled, perceive the companies as fairly decisive. There is no significant difference among all the levels of positions.

TABLE 5.5 DEPENDENT VARIABLE: V4 REMOTE/INVOLVED

Source	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Value	Pr > F
Model	2	14.09182563	7.04591281	4.28	0.0147
Error	332	547.11414452	1.64793417		
Corrected Total	334	561.20597015			
	R-Square	C.V.	Root MSE		V4 Mean
	0.025110	37.10490	1.28371888		3.45970149
Source	DF	Type I SS	Mean Square	F Value	Pr > F
POSITION	2	14.09182563	7.04591281	4.28	0.0147
Source	DF	Type III SS	Mean Square	F Value	Pr > F
POSITION	2	14.09182563	7.04591281	4.28	0.0147

Duncan's Multiple Range Test for Variable: V4 (Remote/Involved)

Number of Means 2 3
Critical Range .3475 .3658

Means with the same letter are not significantly different.

Duncan grouping	Mean	N POSITION
A	3.7179	78 Skilled
A	3.5455	132 Semi-skilled
B	3.2080	125 Unskilled

The value of the responses in this variable borders around equally remote and equally involved. There is no significant difference among the responses of the different levels of employees. The response of the skilled employees is however, closer to perceiving the management style of the companies as fairly involved than those of semi-skilled and unskilled employees.

TABLE 5.6 DEPENDENT VARIABLE: V5 CONSISTENT/INCONSISTENT

Source	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Value	Pr > F
Model	2	5.82441694	2.91220847	1.85	0.1583
Error	332	521.70991142	1.57141540		
Corrected Total	334	527.53432836			
	R-Square	C.V.	Root MSE		V5 Mean
		46.86863	1.25356109		2.67462687
Source	DF	Type I SS	Mean Square	F Value	Pr > F
POSITION	2	5.82441694	2.91220847	1.85	0.1583
Source	DF	Type III SS	Mean Square	F Value	Pr > F
POSITION	2	5.82441694	2.91220847	1.85	0.1583

Duncan's Multiple Range Test for Variable: V5 (Consistent/Inconsistent)

Number of Means 2 3
Critical Range .3393 .3572

Means with the same letter are not significantly different.

Duncan grouping	Mean	N POSITION
A	2.4359	78 Skilled
A	2.7576	132 Semi-skilled
A	2.7360	125 Unskilled

The value indicated by the responses shows that the management style of the companies is fairly consistent. The result shows that there is no significant difference among the different levels of respondents concerning their perceptions of the companies' style of management.

TABLE 5.7 DEPENDENT VARIABLE: V6 TASK-ORIENTED/PEOPLE-ORIENTED

Source	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Value	Pr > F
Model	2	0.29577588	0.14788794	0.10	0.9085
Error	332	511.45347786	1.54052252		
Corrected Total	334	511.74925373			
	R-Square	C.V.	Root MSE		V6 Mean
	0.000578	42.77722	1.24117788		2.90149254
Source	DF	Type I SS	Mean Square	F Value	Pr > F
POSITION	2	0.29577588	0.14788794	0.10	0.9085
Source	DF	Type III SS	Mean Square	F Value	Pr > F
POSITION	2	0.29577588	0.14788794	0.10	0.9085

Duncan's Multiple Range Test for Variable: V6 (Task-oriented/People-oriented)

Number of Means 2 3

Critical Range .3359 .3537

Means with the same letter are not significantly different.

Duncan grouping	Mean	N POSITION
A	2.9487	78 Skilled
A	2.8712	132 Semi-skilled
A	2.904	125 Unskilled

All the levels of employees perceive the management style as fairly task oriented. The results show that there is no significant difference among the responses of skilled, semi-skilled and unskilled employees of the companies. The result shows that the management style in all the companies is equally task oriented and people oriented.

TABLE 5.8 DEPENDENT VARIABLE: V7 DIRECTIVE/PARTICIPATIVE

Source	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Value	Pr > F
Model	2	9.53393919	4.76696959	2.92	0.0554
Error	332	542.15561305	1.63299883		
Corrected Total	334	551.68955334			
	R-Square	C.V.	Root MSE	V7 Mean	
	0.017281	41.04436	1.27788843	3.11343284	
Source	DF	Type I SS	Mean Square	F Value	Pr > F
POSITION	2	9.53393919	4.76696959	2.92	0.0554
Source	DF	Type III SS	Mean Square	F Value	Pr > F
POSITION	2	9.53393919	4.76696959	2.92	0.0554

Duncan's Multiple Range Test for Variable: V8

Number of Means 2 3

Critical Range .3461 .3644

Means with the same letter are not significantly different.

Duncan grouping	Mean	N POSITION
A	2.4359	78 Skilled
A	2.7576	132 Semi-skilled
A	2.7360	125 Unskilled

The skilled employees perceived the companies' management styles as fairly directive whereas the semi-skilled and unskilled employees perceived the style to be equally directive and participative. There was however, no significant difference among the responses of the three levels of employees.

TABLE 5.9 DEPENDENT VARIABLE: V8 PROACTIVE/REACTIVE

Source	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Value	Pr > F
Model	2	0.24711109	0.12355554	0.09	0.9145
Error	332	459.09617249	1.3828198		
Corrected Total	334	459.34328358			
	R-Square	C.V.	Root MSE		V8 Mean
	0.000538	40.61214	1.17593359		2.89552239
Source	DF	Type I SS	Mean Square	F Value	Pr > F
POSITION	2	0.24711109	0.12355554	0.09	0.9145
Source	DF	Type III SS	Mean Square	F Value	Pr > F
POSITION	2	0.24711109	0.12355554	0.09	0.9145

Duncan's Multiple Range Test for Variable: V1 (Rigid/Flexible)

Number of Means 2 3
Critical Range .3183 .3351

Means with the same letter are not significantly different.

Duncan grouping	Mean	N POSITION
A	2.8590	78 Skilled
A	2.8864	132 Semi-skilled
A	2.9280	125 Unskilled

All the employees of the different companies perceived the style of management to be equally proactive and reactive.

TABLE 5.10 DEPENDENT VARIABLE : V9 FORMAL/INFORMAL

Source	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Value	Pr > F
Model	2	1.26469109	0.63234555	0.39	0.6775
Error	332	538.65769697	1.62246295		
Corrected Total	334	539.92238806			
	R-Square	C.V.	Root MSE		V9 Mean
	0.002342	43.27681	1.27375937		2.94328358
Source	DF	Type I SS	Mean Square	F Value	Pr > F
POSITION		1.26469109	0.63234555	0.39	0.6775
Source	DF	Type III SS	Mean Square	F Value	Pr > F
POSITION	2	1.26469109	0.63234555	0.39	0.6775

Duncan's Multiple Range Test for Variable: V9 (Formal/Informal)

Number of Means 2 3
Critical Range .3448 .3629

Means with the same letter are not significantly different.

Duncan grouping	Mean	N POSITION
A	3.0000	78 Skilled
A	2.9848	132 Semi-skilled
A	2.8640	125 Unskilled

The responses indicated that all the employees perceived the management styles as closest to being equally formal and informal.

TABLE 5.11 DEPENDENT VARIABLE : V10
CUSTOMER-ORIENTED/ACCOUNTS-ORIENTED

Source	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Value	Pr > F
Model	2	0.54710872	0.27355436	0.23	0.7953
Error	332	396.21110023	1.19340693		
Corrected Total	334	396.75820896			
	R-Square	C.V.	Root MSE		V10 Mean
	0.001379	49.05692	1.09243166		2.22686567
Source	DF	Type I SS	Mean Square	F Value	Pr > F
POSITION	2	0.54710872	0.27355436	0.23	0.7953
Source	DF	Type III SS	Mean Square	F Value	Pr > F
POSITION	2	0.54710872	0.27355436	0.23	0.7953

Duncan's Multiple Range Test for Variable: V10 (Customer/people -oriented)

Number of Means	2	3
Critical Range	.2957	.3113

Means with the same letter are not significantly different.

Duncan grouping	Mean	N POSITION
A	2.2949	78 Skilled
A	2.1894	132 Semi-skilled
A	2.2240	125 Unskilled

The results in this variable show that all the employees perceived the management style of the companies to be fairly customer oriented

**TABLE 5.12 DEPENDENT VARIABLE : V11
STRATEGICALLY-ORIENTED/SHORT-TERM ORIENTED**

Source	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Value	Pr > F
Model	2	5.41331997	2.70665999	1.84	0.1604
Error	332	488.317802331	1.47083742		
Corrected Total	334	493.73134328			
	R-Square	C.V.	Root MSE		V11 Mean
	0.010964	48.36686	1.21278086		2.50746269
Source	DF	Type I SS	Mean Square	F Value	Pr > F
POSITION	2	5.41331997	2.70665999	1.84	0.1604
Source	DF	Type III SS	Mean Square	F Value	Pr > F
POSITION	2	5.41331997	2.70665999	1.84	0.1604

Duncan's Multiple Range Test for Variable: V11 (Strategically oriented/Short-term oriented)

Number of Means 2 3
Critical Range .3283 .3456

Means with the same letter are not significantly different.

Duncan grouping	Mean	N POSITION
A	2.2821	78 Skilled
A	2.6061	132 Semi-skilled
A	2.5440	125 Unskilled

There is also no significant difference among the various levels of employees concerning their responses with regard to this variable. All the employees perceived the companies to be fairly strategically oriented.

5.11.2 Comparisons of the Responses of Management and Employees

For this measure, a t-test has been used because it is the most appropriate tool for comparing two sets of factors. The probability of the measure is shown in the last column of the table and if its value is $> 0,05\%$ it signifies that there is no difference between the two factors measured at the 95% confidence interval but if it $< 0,05$ it shows that there is a difference. The specific value of the variable is indicated by the value of the mean and the values of the variables are 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5 for the scales, Very, fairly, equally, fairly, and very : respectively.

TABLE 5.13 VARIABLE: V1 RIGID/FLEXIBLE

Position	N	Mean	Std Dev	Std Err	Min	Max	Var	T	DF	Prob
Mgt	45	3.644	1.17	0.17	2	5	Unequ	2.423	59.5	0.019
Employee	335	3.188	1.3	0.71	1	5	Equal	2.242	378.0	0.025

For HO: Variances are equal, $F' = 1.23$ $DF = (334.44)$ $Prob>F' = 0.4155$

The value of the probability shows that there is a difference between the perception of management and that of employees with regard to whether the style of management is rigid/flexible. Managers perceived the style to be closer to being fairly flexible whereas, employees perceived it as just slightly more than equally rigid/flexible.

TABLE 5.14 VARIABLE: V2 BUREAUCRATIC/ENTREPRENEURIAL

Position	N	Mean	Std Dev	Std Err	Min	Max	Var	T	DF	Prob.
Mgt	45	3.222	1.20	0.18	1	5	Unequ	0.116	56.3	0.908
Employ	335	3.200	1.19	0.07	1	5	Equal	0.117	378.0	0.907

For HO: Variances are equal, $F' = 1.01$ DF = (44.334) Prob> $F' = 0.9061$

Concerning the variable inquiring whether the style of management is bureaucratic/entrepreneurial, the perceptions of management and that of the employees were the same. The value of the mean showed that the style of management was perceived by both groups as equally bureaucratic and entrepreneurial.

TABLE 5.15 VARIABLE: V3 DECISIVE/INDECISIVE

Position	N	Mean	Std Dev	Std Error	Min.	Max.	Var	T	DF	Prob.
Management	45	2.156	0.99	0.15	1	4	Unequal	-1.95	61.8	0.056
Employees	335	2.472	1.18	0.06	1	5	Equal	-1.72	378.0	0.087

For HO: Variances are equal, $F' = 1.40$ DF = (334.44) Prob> $F' = 0.1771$

For the variable, decisive/indecisive, both managers and employees had the same perceptions, the management style according to the value of the means was perceived to be fairly decisive. The value of the mean for the employees, however, shows an inclination towards equally decisive and indecisive.

TABLE 5.16 VARIABLE: V4 REMOTE/INVOLVED

Position	N	Mean	Std Dev	Std Error	Min.	Max.	Var	T	DF	Prob.
Management	45	4.067	1.03	0.15	2	5	Unequal	3.586	64.30	0.001
Employees	335	3.460	1.30	0.07	1	5	Equal	3.014	378.0	0.003

For HO: Variances are equal, $F' = 1.58$ DF = (334.44) Prob> $F' = 0.0658$

Concerning this variable, remote/involved, managers and employees had different perceptions. Managers saw the management style as fairly involved whereas employees found it to be equally remote and involved.

TABLE 5.17 VARIABLE: V5 CONSISTENT/INCONSISTENT

Position	N	Mean	Std Dev	Std Error	Min.	Max.	Var	T	DF	Prob.
Management	45	2.111	1.23	0.183	1	5	Unequal	-2.88	57.1	0.006
Employees	335	2.676	1.26	0.068	1	5	Equal	-2.83	378.0	0.005

For HO: Variances are equal, $F' = 1.05$ DF = (334.44) Prob> $F' = 0.8900$

Managers described the management style as fairly consistent whereas, employees found it to be equally consistent and inconsistent.

TABLE 5.18 VARIABLE: V6 TASK ORIENTED/PEOPLE ORIENTED

Position	N	Mean	Std Dev	Std Error	Min.	Max.	Var	T	DF	Prob.
Management	45	2.901	1.16	0.173	1	5	Unequal	-2.22	58.3	0.030
Employees	335	2.489	1.24	0.068	1	5	Equal	-2.11	378.0	0.035

For HO: Variances are equal, $F' = 1.14$ $DF = (334.44)$ $Prob > F' = 0.6163$

For this variable, managers perceived the management style to be equally task and people oriented, whereas employees found it to be fairly task oriented.

TABLE 5.19 VARIABLE: V7 DIRECTIVE/PARTICIPATIVE

Position	N	Mean	Std Dev	Std Error	Min.	Max.	Var	T	DF	Prob.
Management	45	3.044	1.30	0.193	1	5	Unequal	-0.33	56.3	0.738
Employees	335	3.113	1.29	0.070	1	5	Equal	-0.34	378.0	0.736

For HO: Variances are equal, $F' = 1.02$ $DF = (44.334)$ $Prob > F' = 0.8948$

According to the values in this variable, both management and employees perceived the management style to be equally directive and participative.

TABLE 5.20 VARIABLE: V8 PROACTIVE/REACTIVE

Position	N	Mean	Std Dev	Std Error	Min.	Max.	Var	T	DF	Prob.
Management	45	2.711	1.14	0.17	1	5	Unequal	-1.01	57.2	0.314
Employees	335	2.896	1.17	0.06	1	5	Equal	-0.99	378.0	0.321

For HO: Variances are equal, $F' = 1.06$ $DF = (334.44)$ $Prob > F' = 0.8537$

The values in this variable show that both management and employees found the style of management to be equally proactive and reactive.

TABLE 5.21 VARIABLE: V9 FORMAL/INFORMAL

Position	N	Mean	Std Dev	Std Error	Min.	Max.	Var	T	DF	Prob.
Management	45	3.133	1.53	0.228	1	5	Unequal	0.796	52.5	0.429
Employees	335	2.943	1.27	0.069	1	5	Equal	0.920	378.0	0.359

For HO: Variances are equal, $F' = 1.45$ $DF = (44.334)$ $Prob > F' = 0.0759$

Both management and employees found the style of management to be equally formal and informal.

TABLE 5.22 VARIABLE: V10 CUSTOMER ORIENTED/ACCOUNTING ORIENTED

Position	N	Mean	Std Dev	Std Error	Min.	Max.	Var	T	DF	Prob.
Management	45	2.000	1.19	0.177	1	5	Unequal	-1.22	54.4	0.230
Employees	335	2.227	1.09	0.060	1	5	Equal	-1.30	378.0	0.195

For HO: Variances are equal, $F' = 1.19$ DF = (44.334) Prob>F' = 0.4089

Management and employees perceived the style of management to be fairly customer oriented.

TABLE 5.23 VARIABLE: V11 STRATEGICALLY ORIENTED/SHORT-TERM ORIENTED

Position	N	Mean	Std Dev	Std Error	Min.	Max.	Var	T	DF	Prob.
Management	45	2.356	1.43	0.214	1	5	Unequal	-0.68	52.9	0.500
Employees	335	2.507	1.22	0.066	1	5	Equal	-0.77	378.0	0.442

For HO: Variances are equal, $F' = 1.39$ DF = (44.334) Prob>F' = 0.1179

The management style was perceived by both management and employees as fairly strategically oriented.

5.11.3 Comparisons Between Companies

This section compares the management style between companies. The anova has been used again here because it is the most suitable tool for measuring more than two variables. The responses measured are from the seven companies.

TABLE 5.24 DEPENDENT VARIABLE: V1 RIGID/FLEXIBLE

Source	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Value	Pr > F
Model	5	5.84809389	1.16961878	0.76	0.5771
Error	369	565.82123944	1.53339089		
Corrected Total	374	571.66933333			
	R-Square	C.V.	Root MSE		V1 Mean
	0.010230	49.82437	1.23830162		2.4853333
Source	DF	Type I SS	Mean Square	F Value	Pr > F
COMP	5	5.84809389	1.16961878	0.76	0.5771
Source	DF	Type III SS	Mean Square	F Value	Pr > F
COMP	5	5.84809389	1.16961878	0.76	0.5771

Number of Means	2	3	4	5	6
Critical Range	0,5081	0,5350	0,5529	0,5661	0,5764

Means with the same letter are not significantly different.

Duncan grouping	Mean	N	COMP
A	3,4825	36	5
A	3,4464	56	2
A	3,3267	101	4
B A	3,2286	105	1
B A	3,0417	48	7
B	2,8611	29	6

Company 6 differs significantly from companies 5 and 2. However, the responses of all the companies indicate that all the companies are equally rigid and flexible in their management styles. However, companies 2, 4, and 5 are closer to being fairly flexible

than equally rigid and flexible. Companies 1 and 7 are not significantly different from company 6.

TABLE 5.24 Dependent Variable: V2 Bureaucratic/Entrepreneurial

Source	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Value	Pr > F
Model	5	12.24483205	2.44896641	1.72	0.1281
Error	369	524.11250129	1.42035908		
Corrected Total	374	536.35733333			
	R-Square	C.V.	Root MSE		V2 Mean
	0.022830	37.11965	1.19178819		3.21066667
Source	DF	Type I SS	Mean Square	F Value	Pr > F
COMP	5	12.24483205	2.44896641	1.72	0.1281
Source	DF	Type III SS	Mean Square	F Value	Pr > F
COMP	5	12.24483205	2.44896641	1.72	0.1281

Number of Means	2	3	4	5	6
Critical Range	.4695	.4942	.5108	.5230	.5326

Means with the same letter are not significantly different.

Duncan grouping	Mean	N	COMP
A	3.3564	101	4
A	3.3448	36	5
B A	3.3143	105	1
B A	3.1250	56	2
B A	3.0000	48	7
B	2.8056	29	6

According to the results shown in the table above, the values of the responses range from 2,8056 to 3,3564. These results show that all the companies are perceived as equally bureaucratic and entrepreneurial by the respondents. Company 6 differs significantly from companies 4 and 5, whereas the latter two companies do not differ significantly with companies 1, 2, and 7.

TABLE 5.25 DEPENDENT VARIABLE: V3 DECISIVE/INDECISIVE

Source	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Value	Pr > F
Model	5	13.81772387	2.76354477	2.06	0.0694
Error	369	494.33160947	1.33965206		
Corrected Total	374	508.14933333			
	R-Square	C.V.	Root MSE		V3 Mean
	0.027192	47.53971	1.15743339		2.43466667
Source	DF	Type I SS	Mean Square	F Value	Pr > F
COMP	5	13.81772387	2.76354477	2.06	0.0694
Source	DF	Type III SS	Mean Square	F Value	Pr > F
COMP	5	13.81772387	2.76354477	2.06	0.0694

Number of Means	2	3	4	5	6
Critical Range	.4559	.4800	4.961	.5079	.5172

Means with the same letter are not significantly different.

Duncan grouping	Mean	N	COMP
A	2.6381	105	1
A	2.5556	36	5
A	2.5357	56	2
A	2.4167	48	7
A	2.3793	29	6
A	2.1485	101	4

There was no significant difference between the companies. The values of the means of the responses for companies 1, 5, and 2 show that the companies are equally decisive and indecisive. On the other hand the values for the means of companies 4, 6, and 7 show that the companies' management styles are fairly bureaucratic.

TABLE 5.26 DEPENDENT VARIABLE: V4 REMOTE/INVOLVED

Source	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Value	Pr > F
Model	5	15.80139580	3.16027916	1.93	0.0883
Error	369	603.65460420	1.63592034		
Corrected Total	374	619.45600000			
	R-Square	C.V.	Root MSE		V4 Mean
	0.025509	36.25371	1.27903101		3.52800000
Source	DF	Type I SS	Mean Square	F Value	Pr > F
COMP	5	15.80139580	3.16027916	1.93	0.0883
Source	DF	Type III SS	Mean Square	F Value	Pr > F
COMP	5	15.80139580	3.16027916	1.93	0.0883

Number of Means	2	3	4	5	6
Critical Range	.5038	.5304	.5482	.5613	.5715

Means with the same letter are not significantly different.

Duncan grouping	Mean	N	COMP
A	3.7857	56	2
A	3.6000	105	1
A	3.5842	101	4
B A	3.4828	36	5
B A	3.3750	48	7
B	3.0000	29	6

Company 6 differs significantly from companies 1, 2 and 4. The values for the means for companies 1, 2 and 4 show that the management style of the companies is fairly involved whereas that of companies 5, 6, and 7 is perceived as equally involved and remote.

TABLE 5.27 DEPENDENT VARIABLE: V5 CONSISTENT/INCONSISTENT

Source	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Value	Pr > F
Model	5	14.17052004	2.83410401	1.81	0.1109
Error	369	579.20547996	1.56966255		
Corrected Total	374	593.37600000			
	R-Square	C.V.	Root MSE		V5 Mean
	0.023881	48.03918	1.25286174		2.60800000
Source	DF	Type I SS	Mean Square	F Value	Pr > F

COMP	5	14.17052004	2.83410401	1.81	0.1109
Source	DF	Type III SS	Mean Square	F Value	Pr > F
COMP	5	14.17052004	2.83410401	1.81	0.1109

Number of Means	2	3	4	5	6
Critical Range	.536	.5347	.5674	.53557	.5542

Means with the same letter are not significantly different.

Duncan grouping	Mean	N	COMP
B A	3.0278	29	6
B A	2.7524	105	1
B A	2.6250	48	7
B A	2.5517	36	5
B	2.4286	56	2
B	2.4158	101	4

The results in the table above show that companies 2, and 4 differ slightly from companies 1, 5, 6, and 7. The management style of companies 2, and 4 is perceived as fairly consistent whereas that of companies 1, 5, 6, and 7 is perceived as equally consistent and inconsistent. Company six was perceived to be slightly more inconsistent than the rest of the other companies.

TABLE 5.28 DEPENDENT VARIABLE: V6 TASK ORIENTED/PEOPLE ORIENTED

Source	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Value	Pr > F
Model	5	12.49778873	2.49955775	1.65	0.1465
Error	369	559.72621127	1.51687320		
Corrected Tot	374	572.22400000			
	R-Square	C.V.	Root MSE		V Mean
	0.021841	43.12374	1.23161406		2.85600000

Source	DF	Type I SS	Mean Square	F Value	Pr > F
COMP	5	12.49778873	2.49955775	1.65	0.1465
Source	DF	Type III SS	Mean Square	F Value	Pr > F
COMP	5	12.49778873	2.49955775	1.65	0.1465

Number of Means	2	3	4	5	6
Critical Range	.4852	.5107	.5278	.5405	.5503

Means with the same letter are not significantly different.

Duncan grouping	Mean	N	COMP
A	3.0190	105	1
B A	2.9792	48	7
B A	2.9310	29	6
B A	2.8515	101	4
B A	2.7778	36	5
B	2.4643	56	2

Companies 1, 4, 5, 6, and 7, were perceived to be equally task oriented and people oriented. On the other hand company 2 was perceived to be fairly task oriented.

TABLE 5.29 DEPENDENT VARIABLE: V7 DIRECTIVE/PARTICIPATIVE

Source	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Value	Pr > F
Model	5	13.45572408	2.69114482	1.65	0.1451
Error	369	600.61360926	1.62767916		
Corrected Total	374	614.06933333			
	R-Square	C.V.	Root MSE		V7 Mean
	0.021912	40.96121	1.27580530		3.11466667
Source	DF	Type I SS	Mean Square	F Value	Pr > F
COMP	5	13.45572408	2.69114482	1.65	0.1451
Source	DF	Type III SS	Mean Square	F Value	Pr > F

COMP	5	13.45572408	2.69114482	1.65	0.1451
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Number of Means	2	3	4	5	6
Critical Range	.5026	.5291	.5468	.5599	0.5701

Means with the same letter are not significantly different.

Duncan grouping	Mean	N	COMP
A	3.3448	36	5
A	3.2321	56	2
B A	3.2286	105	1
B A	3.0990	101	4
B A	3.0000	48	7
B	2.6111	29	6

Companies 6 differs significantly from companies 2 and 5. The values of the means of all the companies show that the companies' management style is equally directive and participative. Company 6 is however, close to being fairly directive.

TABLE 5.30 DEPENDENT VARIABLE: V8 PROACTIVE/REACTIVE

Source	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Value	Pr > F
Model	5	7.04940943	1.40988189	1.03	0.3999
Error	369	505.30792391	1.36939817		
Corrected Total	374	512.35733333			
	R-Square	C.V.	Root MSE		V8 Mean
	0.013759	40.67005	1.17021287		2.87733333
Source	DF	Type I SS	Mean Square	F Value	Pr > F

COMP	5	7.04940943	1.40988189	1.03	0.3999
Source	DF	Type III SS	Mean Square	F Value	Pr > F
COMP	5	7.04940943	1.40988189	1.03	0.3999

Number of Means	2	3	4	5	6
Critical Range	.4610	.4853	.5015	.5135	.5229

Means with the same letter are not significantly different.

Duncan grouping	Mean	N	COMP
A	3.0417	48	7
A	2.9810	105	1
A	2.9464	56	2
A	2.9310	36	5
A	2.7030	101	4
A	2.6944	29	6

All the companies are perceived as being equally proactive and reactive in the management styles.

TABLE 5.31 DEPENDENT VARIABLE: V9 FORMAL/INFORMAL

Source	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Value	Pr > F
Model	5	9.28163450	1.85632690	1.10	0.3615
Error	369	624.33436550	1.69196305		
Corrected Total	374	633.61600000			
	R-Square	C.V.	Root MSE		V9 Mean
	0.014649	43.82597	1.30075480		2.96800000
Source	DF	Type I SS	Mean Square	F Value	Pr > F

COMP	5	9.28163450	1.85632690	1.10	0.3615
Source	DF	Type III SS	Mean Square	F Value	Pr > F
COMP	5	9.28163450	1.85632690	1.10	0.3615

Number of Means	2	3	4	5	6
Critical Range	.5124	.5394	.5575	.5708	.5812

Means with the same letter are not significantly different.

Duncan grouping	Mean	N	COMP
A	3.1724	29	6
A	3.1667	36	5
A	3.0667	105	1
A	3.0625	48	7
A	2.8393	56	2
A	2.7624	101	4

The results in the above table show that all the companies are equally formal and informal in their management styles. The response of company number 3 does not appear because there only four respondents, that number was too insignificant for measurement by the statistical tool.

**TABLE 5.32 DEPENDENT VARIABLE: V10
CUSTOMER-ORIENTED/ACCOUNTING-ORIENTED**

Source	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Value	Pr > F
Model	5	6.68142706	1.33628541	1.12	0.3471
Error	369	438.71590628	1.18893200		
Corrected Tot	374	445.39733333			

	R-Square	C.V.	Root MSE		V10 Mean
	0.015001	49.62295	1.09038158		2.1973333
Source	DF	Type I SS	Mean Square	F Value	Pr > F
COMP	5	6.68142706	1.33628541	1.12	0.3471
Source	DF	Type III SS	Mean Square	F Value	Pr > F
COMP	5	6.68142706	1.33628541	1.12	0.3471

Number of Means	2	3	4	5	6
Critical Range	.4295	.4522	.4673	.4785	.4872

Means with the same letter are not significantly different.

Duncan grouping	Mean	N	COMP
A	2.2762	105	1
A	2.2500	56	2
A	2.2414	29	6
A	2.2376	101	4
A	2.1944	36	5
A	1.8542	48	7

All the companies were perceived to be customer oriented in their management styles.

TABLE 5.33 DEPENDENT VARIABLE: V11

STRATEGICALLY ORIENTED/SHORT-TERM ORIENTED

Source	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Value	Pr > F
Model	5	5.84809389	1.16961878	0.76	0.5771
Error	369	565.82123944	1.53339098		
Corrected Tot	374	571.66933333			

	R-Square	C.V.	Root MSE		V1 Mean
	0.010230	49.82437	1.23830162		2.4853333 3
Source	DF	Type I SS	Mean Square	F Value	Pr > F
COMP	5	5.84809389	1.16961878	0.76	0.5771
Source	DF	Type III SS	Mean Square	F Value	Pr > F
COMP	5	5.84809389	1.16961878	0.76	0.5771

Number of Means	2	3	4	5	6
Critical Range	.4878	.5135	.5307	.5434	0.5533

Means with the same letter are not significantly different.

Duncan grouping	Mean	N	COMP
A	2.7500	48	7
A	2.5278	36	5
A	2.5172	29	6
A	2.4857	105	1
A	2.4455	101	4
A	2.2857	56	2

The results in the table above show that there is no significant difference between the companies concerning their management styles. However, the values show that companies 1, 2, and 4 are fairly strategically oriented whereas companies 3, 5, 6, and 7 are equally strategically oriented and short term oriented.

5.12 RESULTS OF THE OBSERVATION OF THE COMPANIES

5.12.1 A Measure of the Relationship of the Responses Between Companies

The number of respondents who completed and returned the observation chart was 305 out of 363 employees interviewed. This gives a response of 84%.

The form designed for the ticking of the factors observed in the companies was a three scale measure with values ranging from 1 to 3. This section reports the relationship between the companies with regard to their responses. The Chi-Square has been used because it is the most suitable statistic for measuring the association for a three scale variable. The responses of the companies has been measured by a chi-square probability statistic. If the probability measure is $> 0,05$, the null hypothesis that states that there is no significant difference among the responses of the companies is accepted. On the other hand, if the probability is $< 0,05$, the alternate hypothesis that states that there is a difference among the companies is accepted and the null hypothesis is rejected. The responses for company number 3 were left out because they were only four interviewees from the company and these were too few for quantification by the Chi-square statistic. Effectively, the responses of six companies were compared.

TABLE 5.34 VARIABLE V1 SIGNPOSTS LEADING TO COMPANY PREMISES

Co		Very Clear	Clear	Unclear	Total
1	Frequency	22	39	16	25.41
	Percentage	7.26	12.87	5.28	
	Row Percentage	28.57	50.65	20.78	
	Column Percentage	29.73	22.03	30.77	
2	Frequency	9	34	8	51
	Percentage	2.97	11.22	2.64	
	Row Percentage	17.65	66.67	15.69	
	Column Percentage	12.16	19.21	15.38	
4	Frequency	14	48	7	69
	Percentage	4.62	15.84	2.31	
	Row Percentage	20.29	69.57	10.14	
	Column Percentage	18.92	27.12	13.46	
5	Frequency	5	17	6	28
	Percentage	1.65	5.61	1.98	
	Row Percentage	17.86	60.71	21.43	
	Column Percentage	6.76	9.60	11.54	
6	Frequency	11	19	4	34
	Percentage	3.63	6.27	1.32	
	Row Percentage	32.35	55.88	11.76	
	Column Percentage	14.86	10.73	7.69	
7	Frequency	13	20	11	44
	Percentage	4.29	6.60	3.63	
	Row Percentage	29.55	45.45	25.00	
	Column Percentage	17.57	11.30	21.15	
Total		74	177	52	303
		24.42	58.42	17.16	100.00

Statistic for Table of Comp by V1

Statistic			DF	Value	Prob
Chi-Square			10	13.093	0.219
Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square	10	13.331	0.206		
Montel- Hanenszel Chi-Square	1	0.075	0.784		
Phi Coefficient			0.208		
Contingency Coefficient		0.204			
Cramer's V				0.147	
effective sample Size = 303					
Frequency missing 1					

The results in the table show that there is no significant difference among the companies concerning their responses to variable V1. The responses are 24.42%, 58.42%, and 17.16% of the respondents indicating that the sign posts leading to the companies' premises are very clear, clear and unclear respectively. A total of 83.84% of the respondents showed that the sign posts leading to the companies are either very clear or clear.

TABLE 5.35 VARIABLE V2 GENERAL OUTLOOK OF SURROUNDINGS

Co		Very Clean	Clean	Untidy	Total
1	Frequency	19	55	3	77
	Percentage	6.25	18.09	0.99	25.33
	Row Percentage	24.68	71.43	3.90	
	Column Percentage	23.46	26.19	23.08	
2	Frequency	12	37	2	51
	Percentage	6.25	12.17	0.66	16.78
	Row Percentage	24.68	72.55	3.92	
	Column Percentage	23.46	17.62	15.38	
4	Frequency	26	40	3	69
	Percentage	8.55	13.16	0.99	22.70
	Row Percentage	37.68	57.97	4.35	
	Column Percentage	32.10	19.05	23.08	
5	Frequency	6	22	0	28
	Percentage	1.97	7.24	0.00	9.21
	Row Percentage	21.43	78.57	0.00	
	Column Percentage	7.41	10.48	0.00	
6	Frequency	8	21	5	34
	Percentage	2.63	6.91	1.64	11.18
	Row Percentage	23.53	61.76	14.71	
	Column Percentage	9.88	10.00	38.46	
7	Frequency	10	35	0	45
	Percentage	3.29	11.51	0.00	14.80
	Row Percentage	22.22	77.78	0.00	
	Column Percentage	12.35	16.57	0.00	
Total		81	210	13	304
		26.64	69.08	2.28	100.00

Statistic for Table of Comp by V1
Statistic

DF Value Prob

Chi-Square		10	18.509	0.047
Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square	10	17.980	0.055	
Montel- Hanenszel Chi-Square	1	0.027	0.869	
Phi Coefficient			0.247	
Contingency Coefficient		0.240		
Cramer's V				0.174
effective sample Size = 304				

According to the results from the table, there is a significant difference among the companies concerning their responses.

The respondents of companies 5 and 7 indicated that the general outlook of the surroundings of the companies is very clean or clean whereas, the respondents of companies, 1, 2, and 6 have a few respondents showing that the companies' premises are untidy.

The majority of the respondents of these companies, 69,08% of them, showed that the companies' premises are clean.

TABLE 5.36 VARIABLE V3 RECEPTION OF VISITORS AND TELEPHONE

Co		Very Warm	Warm	Cold	Total
1	Frequency	31	42	4	77
	Percentage	10.20	13.82	1.32	25.33
	Row Percentage	40.26	54.55	5.19	
	Column Percentage	24.03	25.61	36.36	
2	Frequency	23	27	1	69
	Percentage	7.57	8.88	0.33	22.70
	Row Percentage	45.10	52.94	1.45	
	Column Percentage	17.83	16.46	9.09	
4	Frequency	32	36	1	69
	Percentage	10.53	11.84	0.33	22.70
	Row Percentage	46.38	52.17	1.45	
	Column Percentage	24.81	21.95	9.09	
5	Frequency	10	18	0	28
	Percentage	3.29	5.92	0.00	9.21
	Row Percentage	35.71	64.29	0.00	
	Column Percentage	7.75	10.37	0.00	
6	Frequency	14	17	3	34
	Percentage	4.61	5.59	0.99	11.18
	Row Percentage	41.18	50.00	8.82	
	Column Percentage	10.85	10.37	27.27	
7	Frequency	19	24	2	45
	Percentage	6.25	7.89	0.66	14.8
	Row Percentage	42.22	53.33	4.44	
	Column Percentage	14.73	14.63	18.18	
Total		129	164	11	304
		42.43	53.95	3.62	100.00

Statistic for Table of Comp by V3

Statistic	DF	Value	Prob
Chi-Square	10	6.903	0.735
Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square	10	7.434	0.684
Montel- Hanenszel Chi-Square	1	0.013	0.909
Phi Coefficient		0.151	
Contingency Coefficient		0.149	
Cramer's V			0.107
effective sample Size = 304			

The results from the table show that there is no significant difference among the responses of the companies concerning their responses to the variable inquiring about the reception of visitors and the telephone. 42.43% of the respondents showed that the companies' reception of visitors and telephone is very warm, 53.95% showed that the reception is warm and only 3.62% of the respondents indicated that the reception is cold.

TABLE 5.37 **VARIABLE V4 CUSTOMER PARKING**

Co		very spacious	spacious	small	Total
1	Frequency	9	27	41	77
	Percentage	2.96	8.88	13.49	25.33
	Row Percentage	11.69	35.06	53.25	
	Column Percentage	15.00	23.89	31.30	
2	Frequency	16	18	17	51
	Percentage	5.26	5.92	5.59	16.78
	Row Percentage	31.37	35.29	33.33	
	Column Percentage	26.67	15.93	12.98	
4	Frequency	14	25	30	69
	Percentage	4.61	8.22	9.87	22.70
	Row Percentage	20.29	36.23	43.48	
	Column Percentage	23.33	22.12	22.90	
5	Frequency	3	14	11	28
	Percentage	0.99	4.61	3.62	9.21
	Row Percentage	10.71	50.00	39.29	
	Column Percentage	5.00	12.39	8.40	
6	Frequency	9	10	15	34
	Percentage	2.96	3.29	4.93	11.18
	Row Percentage	26.47	29.41	44.12	
	Column Percentage	15.00	8.85	11.45	
7	Frequency	9	19	17	
	Percentage	2.96	6.25	5.59	
	Row Percentage	20.00	42.22	37.78	
	Column Percentage	15.00	16.81	12.98	
Total		60 19.74	130 37.17	131 43.09	304 100

Statistic for Table of Comp by V4

Statistic			DF	Value	Prob
Chi-Square			10	13.599	0.192
Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square	10	13.549	0.195		
Montel- Hanenszel Chi-Square	1	1.105	0.293		
Phi Coefficient			0.212		
Contingency Coefficient		0.207			
Cramer's V				0.150	

effective sample Size = 304

There was no significant difference among the companies in their responses to the variable, size of customer parking.

The overall results were 19,74%, 37,17%, and 43,09% for responses very spacious, spacious, and small car customer parking respectively.

The results in this variable show that the parking space for customers is generally small in these companies. The researcher also observed that though the customer parkings in most of the companies was not as big as that of the companies' employees, they were nevertheless well prepared and clean.

TABLE 5.38

VARIABLE V7 EMPLOYEE SERVICES PROVIDED

Co		Subsidised canteen	Other facility	None	Total
1	Frequency	75	2	0	77
	Percentage	24.67	0.66	0.00	25.33
	Row Percentage	97.40	2.60	0.00	
	Column Percentage	26.69	22.22	0.00	
2	Frequency	50	1	0	51
	Percentage	16.45	0.33	0.00	16.78
	Row Percentage	98.04	1.96	0.00	
	Column Percentage	17.79	11.11	0.00	
4	Frequency	16	7	7	69
	Percentage	5.26	2.30	2.30	22.70
	Row Percentage	23.19	10.14	10.14	
	Column Percentage	18.82	50.00	50.00	
5	Frequency	25	1	2	28
	Percentage	8.22	0.33	0.66	9.21
	Row Percentage	89.29	3.57	7.14	
	Column Percentage	8.90	11.11	14.29	
6	Frequency	31	2	1	34
	Percentage	10.20	0.66	0.33	11.18
	Row Percentage	91.18	5.88	2.94	
	Column Percentage	11.03	22.22	7.14	
7	Frequency	39	2	4	45
	Percentage	12.83	0.66	1.32	14.80
	Row Percentage	86.67	4.44	8.89	
	Column Percentage	13.88	22.22	28.57	
Total		281	9	14	304
		92.43	2.96	4.61	100.00

statistic for Table of Comp by V7

Statistic			DF	Value	Prob
Chi-Square			10	15.669	0.110
Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square		10	19.844	0.031	
Montel- Hanenszel Chi-Square	1	7.864		0.005	
Phi Coefficient				0.227	
Contingency Coefficient			0.221		
Cramer's V				0.161	
effective sample Size = 304					

According to the results from the table, a total of 95,39% of the respondents indicated that the companies have subsidised canteen and other facilities available as benefits for the employees of the companies. There is no significant difference among the responses of the different companies. The researcher also found that all the companies studied had subsidised canteen facilities for their employees. The 4,61% of the respondents who indicated that there are no facilities could have misunderstood the questionnaire.

5.13 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE QUALITATIVE AND THE QUANTITATIVE RESULTS

5.13.1 Customer Care and Provision of Quality Goods and Services

The companies emphasise the production of quality products and services as explained by the interviewees. Customers are very important. This attribute is also confirmed by the quantitative results in the semantic differential. The responses of both management and employees to the questionnaire indicated that the companies are customer-oriented. The comparisons of the responses between companies also indicated that all the companies were customer-oriented rather than accounting-oriented. There was generally no significant difference in the responses of the respondents of the different companies at all levels of the employees.

The responses of both employees and management with regard to the observation chart also showed that the companies had customer parkings which although small in most cases were generally neat and well prepared, an indication that the companies are concerned about their customers. The other responses from observations which are

related to customer care and the provision of high quality goods and services is that all the respondents showed that the companies have clear signposts leading to their premises, clean surroundings, and they receive their visitors and the telephone warmly. This attribute of customer care and awareness of what the market needs is also exhibited by the response from the semantic differential that the companies are fairly proactive.

5.13.2 Participative Style Of Management

The top management of all the seven companies described the management style in their companies as **participative** and **democratic**. The employee respondents of all the seven companies confirmed that they participate in the making of some decisions of the companies through the workers' committees set up by a provision of the Labour Act 1980. Management and the workers' representatives meet at least once a month. Two sets of agenda, one from management and the other from the employees are discussed at these meetings. Matters often brought by management for discussion are such as the productivity levels to be achieved, and the review of past performance. The employees, on the other hand, often bring those items concerning them such as wages and salaries, working conditions, and their general welfare at the workplace. According to the general responses of the employees, there are only a few changes effected by management on matters affecting the employees. Some decisions on matters such as the employment of new people, promotion, and other policy matters are made by management. Workers' committees have some influence on certain matters of minor concern.

The style of management as described in the qualitative section of the results is confirmed by the quantitative results. The responses of both the employees and

management were that the management style of the companies is equally participative and directive. This aptly describes the situation where management participates fully, whereas, employees participate on minor matters. Company Number 6 even though, described as equally directive and participative, differs significantly from the other companies, according to the quantitative results. This result tallies with the results of the interviews.

The other attribute described by six of the companies in the interview responses was that in addition to their being participative and democratic, they were also informal. Cross checking this response with the results of quantitative responses shows that the companies were perceived to be equally formal and informal. This confirms the view that even though the companies are informal at times, they have to give directives for duties to be executed.

5.13.3 Promotion From Within

The response from the interviews showing that the companies promote from within is confirmed by the quantitative response showing that all the companies studied are equally task and people oriented. The companies place equally importance for the achievement of organisational objectives and the development of their people.

5.13.4 Training of Employees

The results of the interviews showed that the companies train their employees. This attribute is also confirmed by the quantitative response already described above, that the companies are equally task and people oriented.

5.13.5 Benefits for Employees

The style of management which is people oriented again confirms this attribute revealed by the interviews. The responses from the observation chart also confirmed that the employees of the companies get benefits such as subsidised canteen meals.

5.13.6 Communication Within The Companies

Communication is for the purpose of disseminating information to the various levels of the organisation so that effective decisions are made and good work relations are maintained. These companies hold constant review meetings with all the levels of employees according to the results of the interviews. Plans are made at these meetings. This attribute is confirmed by the quantitative result that the companies are equally strategically and short term oriented in their management styles.

5.13.7 Decision Making

The companies have both a centralised and a decentralised decision making structure according to the qualitative results. This attribute is confirmed by the quantitative results. The responses of all the employees and managers in answering the question whether the companies are bureaucratic or entrepreneurial showed, that the companies were equally bureaucratic and entrepreneurial. This has to do with the decisions; some are made centrally and others are made at lower levels.

5.13.8 Employee Satisfaction

Employees interviewed in six of the companies expressed satisfaction with job security in their companies. Employees in the other company could not be interviewed because management objected to their employees being interviewed.

5.13.9 Major Achievements of the Companies

The companies have been found to be expanding and increasing their profits from year to year. This attribute confirms the validity of the selection criteria used to select the companies for the study, i.e. the financial criteria, and the provision of local employment.

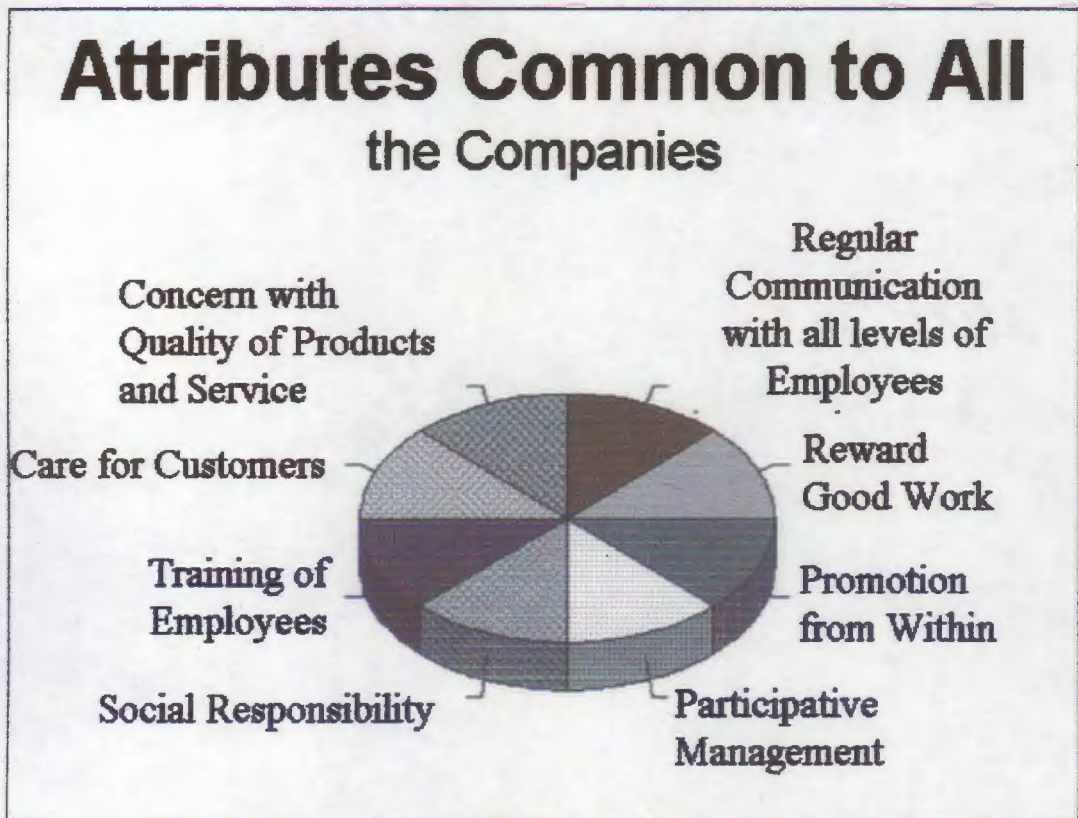
5.13.10 Concern For Others (Social Responsibility)

The attribute of concern for others exhibited in social involvement by the companies is confirmed by the quantitative response that the companies are equally people and task oriented and that they are fairly customer oriented in their management styles.

5.13.11 An Observation about the Quantitative Instrument

The quantitative instrument could not specifically cover the measurement of such things as communication within the companies, promotion from within, training of employees, and concern for others indicated by the responses of the interviews. It only measured the management style of the companies. The areas not covered by this instrument could only be inferred from the responses obtained through its use.

Figure 5-1



5.13.12 General Comment on the Results

The type of industry has had no influence in the findings of the management style of the companies. For example, some companies such as Delta Corporation deal directly with the final consumer but others such as PG Manufacturers deal with the final consumer

through wholesalers. The responses were, nevertheless, similar for both the qualitative and the quantitative research approaches.

5.14 SUMMARY

This chapter has given a report on the results in three sections. The first section consists of a report of the results from the interviews, the main method of collecting data. The second section has reported on the quantitative results and, finally, the last section has reported on the results of the observations. The latter were extracted from the observation chart completed by the interviewees.

All the results obtained from the different research tools having been reported; a relationship among such results has been mentioned to show if there is uniformity in the findings. Figure 5-1 above represents the results of the study.

The next chapter discusses the results and their implications. It concludes the study.

DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter discusses the results of the study which have been reported in the previous chapter. In reviewing the results, reference is made to the objectives of the study to see if they have been met and to establish whether the study has achieved what it sought to accomplish. Comments are made on the implications of the results in the light of management theory and the relationship between these results and previous studies. Personal interpretations of the results as perceived by the researcher are also given. Finally, there is a conclusion which comments on the possible effects of the application of the recommendations to Zimbabwe. This specifically looks at the use to which the study can be put in making decisions about real situations, contribution to knowledge, and the implications for further research.

6.1.1 Objectives of the Study Revisited

This study has been set out to meet the following two objectives:

1. To discover how excellent companies in Zimbabwe are managed.
2. To discover the distinctive management attributes of Zimbabwean excellent companies.

6.1.2 A Recapitulation of the Statement of the Problem

The problem that led to the conducting of this study was stated earlier, in Chapter 1, the introductory chapter of the study, and it consists of:

1. The slow growth rate of the Zimbabwean economy.
2. The decline in the rate of employment - unemployment rose from 37,2% in 1990 to 44% in 1993.
3. The fall in both home and export orders resulting from a drop in the production capacity of more than 82% of the firms.
4. The doubling of average prices over the previous two years while average wages rose only 45% - thus reducing living standards and cutting domestic demand.

These problems emanate, *inter alia*, from a lack of proper management approaches and the researcher hopes that satisfying the objectives of the study will help alleviate the problems enumerated above.

6.1.3 A Brief Description of Relevant Earlier Studies

Earlier studies on excellence are those conducted by Peters and Waterman (1982), Hobbs (1987), Ball and Asbury (1989), and Peters (1992). These studies and other theoretical views on excellence have been reviewed in Chapter 3 of this study. The management theories of the present study are based on these previous studies.

6.1.4 A Brief Description of the Population of the Study

The subjects of study are Zimbabwean industrial companies quoted on the Zimbabwean Stock Exchange (ZSE). A sample of the study consists of 7 excellent companies drawn from a population of 60 companies quoted on the exchange. The details of the population, the special techniques used to select the sample, and its treatment are addressed in Chapter Four of this research.

6.1.5 Data Collection

The interviews have been used as the main tool for collecting data for the study and a quantitative questionnaire (the semantic differential), and observations have also been used to supplement the interviews. The discussion of the collection of data and their analysis is also detailed in Chapter Four.

6.1.6 Some Brief Highlights of Variations of the Approach of this Study to that of Peters and Waterman's *IN SEARCH OF EXCELLENCE*

Even though this study has been based on the previous popular study by Peters and Waterman (1982), it has been modified in the following areas identified by the critics (referred to in Chapter Four) of these authors as weaknesses of their (Peters and Waterman's) study:

- a. In Chapter Four (on Methodology) the researcher outlines how the target population was studied whereas Peters and Waterman's study does not.

- b. In this study, there is discussion of how the companies have been analysed; a content analysis has been used for analysing the data from the interviews, and a computer programme, the Statistical Analysis Systems (SAS) at the UNISA computer centre was used to analyse data from the quantitative research. On the contrary, there is no mention of how the companies were analysed in the Peters and Waterman study.
- c. The companies in the present study were visited and data collected on the premises of the companies. On the other hand, according to : Carroll, (1983); (in Hitt & Ireland, 1987 : 91), it would appear that Peters and Waterman depended on secondary sources for the data for their study and this could result in a potentially defective research design which undermines whatever the work may contribute to management theory.
- d. Johnson, Natarajan, & Rappaport, (1985) express concern that the six financial criteria used by Peters and Waterman are solely accounting based and they can be misleading because they exclude return to shareholders, a true measure of a firm's "excellence" in (Hitt & Ireland, 1987 :91).

The present study uses "earnings per share," a measure of a return to shareholders, as one of the financial criteria for selecting the companies. In addition to the use of the financial criteria for selecting the companies for the study, this study uses macroeconomic criteria involving provision for local employment and export performance to broaden the perspective of the criteria of company success to include a wider range of stakeholders consisting of members of the public as well as the government.

6.2 THE RESULTS IN RELATION TO THE OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The results of the study as mentioned in the previous chapter, have been termed the management attributes of Zimbabwean excellent companies and they consist of themes stated under four subheadings pertaining to the manner of managing:

- strategy
- management of human resources
- structure
- concern for others.

6.2.1 Strategy

6.2.1.1 Concern With the Quality of Products and Service

The companies' concern with the production of quality products and the provision of high quality service has been discovered to be one of their management attributes. This concern gives these companies a strategic advantage over their competitors and it has become part of the companies' culture.

Several authors in previous studies have mentioned a similar attribute. The most successful companies in South Africa (Ball & Asbury, 1989), and those of the West (Peters & Waterman, 1982); (Alio & Pattern, 1991; Clutterbuck and Kernaghan, 1991), have all been found to be committed to quality. This results in customer satisfaction (Ball & Asbury, 1989). Concerning this management attribute, full agreement is reached between the findings of this study and those of the previous

researchers mentioned above. The importance of quality in products and service has no cultural boundaries. All people regardless of their nationality or culture need convenience, reliability, and serviceability in the product and these attributes are provided by quality (Garvin, 1990). It is, therefore, logical that this attribute of Zimbabwean excellent companies is common to both the companies of the West and those of other countries studied earlier.

The provision of quality in Zimbabwean excellent companies is the responsibility of all employees whether they are in direct production or not. The reception of visitors and the use of telephone is friendly and warm in these companies. This finding agrees with Clutterbuck and Kernaghan's (1991) conclusion that in successful companies, receptionists are polite to all people who need access to the company. Receptionists are the first point of contact in any company. Their politeness is, therefore, one of the major contributions towards attracting and assuring customers that they are receiving a quality service in the company.

Customers were not interviewed in this study and Chaddock's (1995) observation that "quality, like beauty, lies in the eye of the beholder" - that (the value of the product or service lies with the person receiving it, not the person providing it) may seem to weaken the validity of this finding but in reality it does not.

Firstly, some of the customers of these companies are the employees of the companies themselves. The latter were interviewed and they confirmed that the quality of their products was higher than that of their competitors.

Secondly, the companies studied are competing with other companies in their respective industries and they have shown continued superior performance to that of

their competitors. This is evidence that the companies have maintained or even gained their market share. Customers need value for their money, convenience and reliability in the products. They would switch over to other suppliers if they did not get higher quality goods and service. This is as true of consumers in the developed countries as it is of those in the developing countries. The emergence of such inclinations has been largely facilitated by the exposure of consumers in emerging economies to high-quality foreign products which have been flooding the markets over the years (Zeller, 1995).

6.2.1.2 Customer Care

Customers are very important to the Zimbabwean excellent companies. The results showed that most of the companies are expanding to areas where customers can have easy access to their products. For example, Delta-Ok Bazaars has expanded by establishing eight branches in high density suburbs within the last five years.

Some of these companies are so assertive on the care for customers that they would rather lose an employee than lose a customer. Evidence of this is drawn from the following extract from an interview:

I don't see them (management) looking at both sides of the story. A problem involving a customer and a worker results in the worker suffering (Credit Supervisor OK - JN:- Interview).

There is consistency in the emphasis on customer care, particularly in this company - Delta-OK Bazaar. Unskilled employees of the company commented on an incident when the chairman of the workers' committee was fired by management because he locked customers out of the store one evening in a peak season. The workers' chairman had acted in protest against management for he felt that although the store's opening

hours had been officially extended, the workers needed to go home and rest because it was getting late at night.

This finding of customer care agrees with the findings of Wallace (1988); Clutterbuck and Kernaghan (1991); Robson (1986). Customers come first in successful companies because where there is no customer there is no business. Kwik Fit, one of the companies studied by Clutterbuck and Kernaghan (1991), is said to have established 620 centres close to where their customers lived so as to provide them with convenient service.

The reason for customer care is competitive pressure from other companies. Companies excel because they strive to satisfy the demands of their stakeholders, such as customers, unions, and suppliers. Excellent companies, therefore, secure their position by caring for their customers. Taking care of customers provides a comparative advantage (Porter, 1990).

This attribute of customer care by the Zimbabwean excellent companies also confirms the studies by Peters and Waterman (1982), Ball and Asbury (1989), and Birrel (1992). Peters and Waterman (1982) term the care for customers "closeness to the customer" and Ball and Asbury term it "giving the customer what she wants". The emphasis on customer care was on all the types of companies: those dealing directly with the final consumer and those trading through other companies. In Zimbabwe, for example, such dedicated service to the customer through long hours was found to be provided by TSL - Bak-Storage, and PG Manufacturers.

These companies draw this warmth, caring and concern for the customer from the African concept of 'Ubuntu'. The companies' management and work force is largely

African and black. Universal brotherhood, sharing, respecting and treating other people as human beings (Khoza, 1994) is stressed among the African Blacks. A customer is generally treated as a visitor in these companies and visitors are often treated more kindly than those already living in the home. They are usually given the best attention amongst the African people (Chinkanda, 1994).

6.2.2 Management of Human Resources

6.2.2.1 Participatory Style of Management

The excellent companies in Zimbabwe are characterised by a participative style of management. The decision making in the companies is in strata. Employees are involved in the decisions affecting them directly whereas participants in the making of key decisions are those in managerial positions. No single individual makes all the decisions in these companies. This practice is an aspect of the community concept of 'ubuntu' which emphasises supportiveness, co-operation, and solidarity. It is the opposite of individualism (Dlomo, 1991; Khoza, 1993). The excellent companies are invariably influenced by this African philosophy of communalism for the following reasons:

Firstly, the companies are operating in an African state and, therefore, the African cultural practices predominate in these organisations.

Secondly, according to Hofmeyr (1992), the number of black managers at all levels in Zimbabwean companies has increased to very high proportions since independence as a result of affirmative action. It is this policy that also influences the change of values from those of the West, championed by the previous white managers the majority of

whom has since been replaced, to those of the black managers who have taken over most of the management positions.

Employees, on the other hand, participate in decision-making indirectly through their workers' committees. A provision of the Labour Act, 1985, referred to in the previous chapter, makes it compulsory for all the companies in Zimbabwe to have workers' committees to represent the interests of employees in companies.

This indirect form of representation, as mentioned by Blunt & Jones (1992), consists of workers' representatives elected from lower levels to represent their constituencies in the making of decisions at higher levels. All the employees interviewed for this study, however, stressed that the main decisions are made at the senior management level. It was clear to the researcher on getting the data from the interviewees that workers' committees mainly serve the purpose of presenting the grievances of the workers to top management. They speak mainly on those matters affecting the workers. The researcher's interpretation is that whereas workers' committees serve to allay industrial conflicts, policy matters are exclusively the prerogative of top management. It is the managers who are employed to manage and, therefore, it is they who should make the key decisions. Although managers encourage participation of the employees on matters where employees can help and although managers may listen to workers' recommendations on matters needing management decisions the managers themselves decide (O'Donnel & Weihrich, 1992). Even though the workers' committees are not involved in the making of key decisions, this provision for dialogue and the resulting interaction between workers and management is favourably viewed by all the managers and executives interviewed for this study. The workers of these companies seem to understand their role in relation to that of the managers. In all the companies studied, there was no incident of a strike over the previous five years. This

could be attributed to the smooth relations resulting from the involvement of employees in the making of the decisions affecting them. This confirms the theory on participation stated by Lucas (1978), O'Donnel & Weihrich (1992), and Kroon (1995), that participation contributes to enterprise success and harmony through its yielding of motivation and valuable knowledge. Informing workers about the organisation's problems - especially problems that directly involve them - serves as a confidence booster for them (O'Donnel & Weihrich, 1992).

In the African community context, decision making is also in strata. According to Singh (1996), in the African community there is a council of elders which decides on matters pertaining to the community. Qualification into membership of this council is age and proficiency. The general belief among the African people is that wisdom derives from age. This category of decision makers gets input from the communities they represent and they make decisions through consensus at the highest levels. The deliberations made by the elders are then communicated to communities they represent (Singh, 1996; Teffo, 1996). This type of decision making - which is in strata and prevails in Zimbabwean excellent companies is common in the culture of the African people. Workers committees, which are a result of legislation - the Labour Act 1980 also have concepts familiar with the African approach of decision making.

Notwithstanding the fact that the workers' committees in Zimbabwe came about through legislation, the excellent companies maximise the usefulness of these committees by training them to be conversant with their roles. Six of the companies studied train their workers' committees either in-house or externally. There is also a government centre, Silveira House, to which some of the companies send their workers' committees for training. Only one company out of the seven studied does not train its workers' committees. Surprisingly, this exception too, had not had any serious

problems such as strikes among its employees in the previous five years. However, it had a unique problem from the rest of the companies studied. Morale among its employees was generally low. All those interviewed expressed some strong dissatisfaction to the fact that the company does not have the position of a Personnel Manager. Top management did not take heed of the workers' need to fill the post. The workers felt that, as a result of this vacancy, their personal problems were not properly dealt with.

Although these companies are managed by participation, top management requires performance from all levels. Performance reports are given at department meetings and production targets are set by management and discussed with employees. In these companies, because of the strong requirement and desire to produce, the "participative style" of management could most appropriately be termed "equally participative and directive" as shown by the quantitative results in the previous chapter. This type of management style is influenced by both of McGregor's theory X and Y assumptions. Theory X is classified by some analysts as production oriented and theory Y as people oriented (Kroon, 1995; O'Donnel & Weihrich, 1992; Lucas, 1978). Theory Y also presupposes a participative leadership approach which believes that individuals need to be given the opportunity to unlock their creative potential both for their good and that of the organisation (Jaeger and Kanungo (1993). By involving their employees in the discussions of problems affecting them the Zimbabwean excellent companies liberate the workers' potential.

6.2.2.2 Promotion From Within

All the excellent companies in this study emphasise the need for promotion from within. Employees in the companies are appraised at least once a year. The promotions are

based on these appraisals. Four of the companies studied had some senior managers who started from shop floor level and were promoted over the years to their present positions. The companies studied by Hobbs (1987) were also found to possess this attribute. If employees are promoted from within, they benefit the organisation through the experience they have gained in the organisation over the years. The attribute of 'doing things properly' (Ball & Asbury, 1989), is largely a result of experience. The purpose of this practice in these companies is to motivate and to encourage the other employees at lower levels. This is in harmony with the "ubuntu" principle of sharing and supportiveness which includes helping other people to develop (Makhudu, 1993; Dlomo, 1991; Khoza, 1993; Mbigi, 1995). It also satisfies the Maslowian's esteem needs, for status prestige, and the title of the job (Blunt and Jones 1992). Promotion from within may, however, have some drawbacks such as jealousy arising from those workers within the company who have not been promoted. The other disadvantage that may stem from this exercise is in-breeding. This may stifle growth. It is advisable, therefore, that there be some infusion of ideas from outside the company sometimes so as to encourage progress. These excellent companies, however, asserted that they promote from within only when there is a suitable candidate within the company.

6.2.2.3 The Training of Employees

Besides their striving to get the best qualified employees from the market, these companies train their workers both in-house and externally. This attribute harmonises with the one mentioned previously - "concern with quality products and services". In order to be effective in the production of quality, these companies hire the best qualified candidates in the labour market. In most of these companies, the minimum educational qualification for recruitment for the lowest job level is five 'O' Level passes. This is a university entrance qualification in many African countries. The policy of training

employees is also eased by the educational assistance policies found in some companies studied. Six out of the seven of them were found to have this policy and even the one exception was very keen on introducing on-the-job training for its employees. The importance of the training of employees in companies is also confirmed by Gilley and Moore (1986); and Robson (1986) and Peters & Waterman (1982), who state that many companies which seek excellence have adopted career development as their main strategy. Peters & Waterman (1982), classify this practice under the term 'productivity through people'. They all emphasize that productivity can be increased through training. Gilley and Moore (1986) mention two approaches often used to achieve this development strategy. The first one makes use of specialists and the other one uses managers and supervisors.

Though there is some agreement with Gilley & Moore (1986) on the principle of training, there is a slight difference in the procedure employed by Zimbabwean companies. Unlike the procedure advocated by Gilley and More (1986), the formal training of employees is not undertaken by managers and supervisors in the Zimbabwean setting. The managers and supervisors are confined to the day to day supervision of work. The training of employees in the companies is done by training officers employed for that specific purpose. These officers are stationed at head office and they sometimes go on training itineraries to the branches and at other times the employees are selected for training and sent to the training centre in head office. Employee training in Zimbabwean excellent companies confirms management's beliefs about human potential and malleability. Jaeger and Kanungo's (1993) cultural assumption that within organisations in developing countries, human capabilities are often viewed as more or less fixed with limited potential requiring no need for training is disproved by this study. This assumption by Jaeger and Kanungo is contrary to the principles of "ubuntu". According to Singh (1996) the African culture, like the Indian

culture, has always emphasised the imparting of skills and knowledge as part of developing the individual and the community. Skills are handed down from father to son, from generation to generation. In an organisational context, this would imply that employees must be trained to benefit themselves as well as the organisation. Those given the task of imparting knowledge to others in the traditional African setting are those with special skills and expertise in their areas of knowledge (Singh 1996). These experts are the counterparts of the training officers in the Western setting. The training of employees in the Zimbabwean excellent companies, therefore, draws from the African cultural origins.

6.2.2.4 Employee Benefits and Awards

The results of excellent companies have confirmed that employees are motivated through benefits like bonuses, subsidised canteen meals and long service awards. The emphasis is on extrinsic sources of job satisfaction. Maslow's need hierarchy theory, discussed in Chapter 2, features in the motivational aspect used here. The benefits and incentives provided the Zimbabwean employees as described here satisfy the needs in the physiological hierarchy. This confirms the assertion by Blunt and Jones (1992:282) that in Africa it is safe to suppose that the vast majority of lower level workers - partly because of their obligations to immediate family and kin - would be concerned with satisfying more basic needs. This means that at work they would be most concerned about financial rewards and security.

The companies studied also showed evidence of engaging in this practice. Employees were generally satisfied with job security because they knew that the companies were financially stable and expanding. This shows that security ranks prime as far as their employment is concerned. The desire to satisfy this basic need reflected in the worker's

willingness to continue the work process, thus confirming the research finding cited earlier in the literature survey. In that example, incentives such as free medical and dental care, car allowances, loans for refrigerators, and company guaranteed loans provided for the 400 workers by the Guma Valley Co., in Sierra Leone, proved a great success in boosting morale. Such incentives are of a physiological level in Maslow's hierarchy of needs : Tausky, 1969 : 54 -55 (in Blunt and Jones, 1992). Awards given to the employees also have a motivational effect because they amount to praise for work well done. According to Skinner praise for performance motivates workers and boosts their morale (Kroon, 1995; Koontz, et al, 1986).

6.2.2.5 Constant Communication Within the Companies

The results of the study have shown that Zimbabwean companies are characterised by constant communication between all the levels of employees within the organisation. There is upwards, downwards, and lateral communication. Meetings among managers are frequent and they range from daily to weekly. This compares well to the Japanese levels of communication as cited by Ouchi (1981). In the Zimbabwean case, at least once a month, employees meet on their own or with management, sometimes through their representatives - the workers' committees - or as a whole group. Reports of the companies productivity are given at these meetings. This practice has had the effect of strengthening the relations between management and employees and it confirms the theory by Kreitner (1983), Fulmer (1988), O'Donnel & Weihrich (1992), and Kroon (1995) that communication should flow in various directions in order to establish harmonious relations between employees and management. Frequent communication soothes relations within the organisation. The level of sophistication is now high in organisations and that necessitates faster information flow than ever before. If it flows

slower than it should, the enterprise could experience production problems (Kroon, 1995).

Robson (1986) also states that successful companies are interested in the views of their employees and this need is filled through departmental meetings. In Zimbabwe, the companies studied communicate with their employees mostly through workers' committees and through circulars posted on the bulletin boards. The principle of "Ubuntu" requires that in an organisation there should be free flow of information because everyone has a right to know what is going on (Dlomo, 1991; Potloane, 1991). One of the companies uses a suggestion box in addition to the conventional methods of communication common to all the others. The suggestion box method is similar to that of the opinion surveys reported by Robson (1986). This method is not favoured by six of the companies studied. The reason could be that these companies view the method as a duplication of service because the meetings they hold between management and workers are frequent enough and suggestions are invited and discussed at these meetings.

6.2.3 Structure

6.2.3.1 Centralised And Decentralised Decision Making

Geographically, all the companies studied are decentralised; they have branches all over the country. However, decision making in these companies is both centralised and decentralised. Policy matters are decided upon at the companies' Head Offices and matters pertaining to the day to day operations are decided at branch level. Branches, for example, cannot set their own prices, and the authority to employ new staff has to be sought from Head Office. The main objective of this centralisation of decisions

pertaining to policy matters is to ensure uniformity in all the branches; it is not based on power relations per se. Even though it is Head Office that decides on policy matters, branch managers are invariably asked to give their input. The centralisation of decision making on policy matters is, therefore, by agreement between branch management and Head Office. This approach is that of participatory management. To participate does not necessarily mean that one has to make the decision but that one is consulted before the final decision is made (Kroon, 1995). Centralisation, therefore, does not preclude participation.

This finding about the Zimbabwean companies is contrary to the suggestion by Robson (1986) that all the fourteen excellent companies he studied in the United States tended towards a decentralised decision-making structure. This implies that most major decisions were made at the branches without the necessity of consulting with Head Office. The disparity with Robson's (1986) finding on the decision-making structure is a matter of degree. Decisions on policy matters were also made at Head Office in the companies he studied. Peters & Waterman (1982), however, found that the companies they studied had both centralised and decentralised decision making. They established that major decisions were made at the branches while others at Head Office. Although these authors do not specifically state the type of decisions that are made at the branches, they nevertheless mention that the purpose of this decentralisation is to "liberate the human potential". Lower levels of an organisation should be allowed to make major suggestions and this encourages them to bring the best ideas to benefit the organisation.

It is clear to this researcher that the centralisation of decisions concerning policy matters is standard practice of all organisations irrespective of their cultural background. One major reason for this procedure in all companies - Western or

Zimbabwean - is for them to establish uniformity and to provide each sub unit of the enterprise with the same benefits resulting from the decisions made by Head Office. That is obviated by the need to avoid contradictions within the same organisation.

The evidence of the present study is contrary to the suggestion by Montgomery : (in Blunt & Jones, 1992) that: (a) African organisations prefer centralised forms of decision-making; (b) African managers are resistant to change; and (c) in Africa only appeals to higher authority can bring change.

That the authority for any major decision to be taken by the branches has to be approved by Head Office is consistent with the practice of maintaining uniformity as alluded to above. Branch management gets involved in the major decisions affecting them. They, however, have to motivate in order to cause this change. It is not that the decisions affecting the branches descend from top management without the ideas of the branch managers. There is constant communication between the branches and the Head Offices of these companies. Major decisions affecting the branches are made through consultation. These decisions, however, have to be made within the guidelines of company policy. The "consultation" with Head Office required of the branches of the Zimbabwean excellent companies before making any major decision affecting them could be responsible for the difference between the companies studied by Peters & Waterman (1982) and those presented in this study.

The suggestion by Blunt *et al*, may be confirmed partly if one considers the delays that occur in making decisions affecting the branches. One branch, for example, has had a shortage of staff, particularly during peak seasons, for about three years because it has no authority to increase its staff. To do so, it is required to get approval from Head Office. However, the reasons given by the branch manager were that: (a) the company

had growing problems; (b) it had expanded very rapidly within the last five years; and (c) as a result of the above, it could not adequately staff all its branches within a short time. Some caution also had to be exercised by Head Office against over-spending on the budget. Therefore, the reasons for the delays in staffing have nothing to do with the dictatorial policies of these companies. The decisions affecting the branch are arrived at through consultation between the branch and Head Office.

Concerning the attribute of excellent companies having a lean staff at Head Office as espoused by Peters & Waterman (1982), and Robson (1987), there was no direct evidence of this emphasis in these companies. However, it was noticeable that the companies exercise economy in staffing as revealed by the delays in increasing staff at the branches of some companies. Difficulty in getting adequate staff was one of the problems of growth mentioned by three of the companies.

6.2.4 Concern for Other People

6.2.4.1 Involvement in Social Responsibility Programmes

The results have shown that all the excellent companies in Zimbabwe are involved in social responsibility programmes. The seven companies in the study all show an awareness of the communities surrounding them and they contribute in different ways to the upliftment of the communities' standard of living. Evidence of this attribute confirms the theory by Drucker (1977; 1987) that every one is an organ of society and exists for the sake of society. Drucker mentions that in addition to fulfilling its priority task of making profit, every business ought to have an impact on its community and on society in general. Jobs and dividends are necessary means but not an end in themselves (Drucker, 1977 : 42-43). The attribute of social involvement by

Zimbabwean excellent companies is also in accord with the view given by Makower (1994) that "companies of all sizes are discovering that they function best when they merge their business interests with the interests of customers, employees, suppliers, neighbours, investors, and others affected directly or indirectly by their operations" (Makower, 1994 : 10). The excellent companies in Zimbabwe are not compelled by law to contribute socially. However, according to Khumalo (1992), they realise that they have "an unenforceable obligation" to be of assistance to the communities surrounding them. This development in turn boosts business because it is the prosperous communities that increase the economic activity of business in general.

This social involvement by the Zimbabwean excellent companies should also be seen in the light of their cultural background. The African concept of '*ubuntu*', the community idea stresses the importance of oneness with the surrounding community: "*umuntu ngumuntu ngabantu*" - i.e. a person is what he is because of others (Khoza, 1991; Mbigi, 1995). According to this philosophy, therefore, the excellent companies in Zimbabwe owe their status to their neighbourhoods. They are involved in social responsibility programmes as their gesture of gratitude to the community. They do not expect to receive back anything directly from the community in return for their contribution which is given in order to bring about overall well being in the community (Khoza, 1993; Dlomo, 1991). It is clear, therefore, that from an African perspective, a company which recognises that it is part of the community and contributes towards it will be rewarded with success. The effect of such a practice is obviously that a company which involves itself in social responsibility is more often likely to be held in high esteem by the members of the community. This is confirmed by a finding by Martin (1994) that customers like companies that support good causes.

6.2.5 The Relationship of the Results to the Objectives of the Study

The results of the study as discussed above specifically show the managerial aspects that characterise Zimbabwean excellent companies. The companies are managed through a participative style of management and the manner of participation has been explained in the discussion above. The management attributes which are prevalent among these companies are:

- a. concern with provision of **quality products and services**;
- b. **care** for their **customers**;
- c. **participative** style of management;
- d. **a constant communication** with all levels of employees within them;
- e. emphasis on **promotion from within**;
- f. **training of employees** either in-house or externally;
- g. **reward good work with incentives** such as **bonuses, Long Service awards, Worker of the Year awards, and Manager of the Year awards**;
- h. all the companies contribute to **social responsibility**;
- i. **a centralised and decentralised** decision-making structure.

In view of the above findings, the following objectives of the study have been satisfied:

1. The manner in which Zimbabwean excellent companies are managed has been determined.
2. The management attributes of the excellent companies in Zimbabwe have also been identified.

6.3 COMMONLY SHARED MANAGEMENT ATTRIBUTES

This section is a presentation of the attributes that are common to all the companies studied. The attributes consist of themes derived from the comments by the interviewees and their responses to the questionnaires. The parameters for the interview schedule and those for the quantitative instruments were representative of the content to be measured (management) as was explained earlier in Chapter Four. The attributes of excellence discovered in this study are management attributes. There could be other attributes of excellence pertaining to other areas other than management. Also, whether non-excellent companies also subscribe to and practice these approaches is a subject for further research.

A finding of the commonly shared attributes suggests that such attributes are central to the successes of these companies. The management attributes discovered to be shared by all the excellent companies are as follows:

1. participative approach to management;
2. care for customers;
3. concern with the quality of products and services;
4. training of employees;
5. rewarding good work;
6. promotion from within;
7. regular communication with all levels of employees;
8. involvement in social responsibility.

6.4 SOME FINDINGS CONTRARY TO THE RESEARCHER'S EXPECTATIONS

6.4.1. Dissatisfaction of the Employees

The researcher expected employees of the excellent companies in Zimbabwe to express overall satisfaction with all the activities of their companies. This, however, was not the case. In four of the seven companies studied, workers complained about low wages. Besides this concern, employees interviewed in all the seven companies admitted that not all their grievances that are taken by the workers committees to top management are answered satisfactorily. This, however, might not have been because of a deliberate intention by management to frustrate the workers. There might have been genuine reasons for management's failure to meet the needs of the employees, particularly at the branch level where approvals have to be awaited from Head Office. Nonetheless, management could have cleared any doubts from the employees through openness to them. It would appear that in some of these companies, some information is not shown to certain employees as confirmed in the next section below.

6.4.2. Non-Disclosure of Information to all Employees

Unskilled employees of three of the seven companies studied were not aware of the existence in their companies of policies providing for educational assistance to all the employees. The cause for this ignorance is not clear to the researcher because top management confirmed that such a policy exists for all employees. This is reason enough for the observation that, in some of these companies, information does not flow as freely as it should. Generally, in all the companies studied, the amount of information the employees had free access to tended to increase with the level of the

positions the employees held in the company. This could be because the level of interaction between an employee and top management tends to rise proportionately with his rank's proximity to management. In one of these companies, for example, skilled employees have meals in the same canteen with top management whereas, the semiskilled, and unskilled employees eat in a different canteen altogether elsewhere in the company premises. Moreover, top management have other opportunities of interacting with skilled employees because of the nature of their work. The frequency of such meetings and informal interaction could decrease proportionately as one goes down the corporate ladder, resulting in a disproportionate amount of information being available to the different levels of employees. A great deal of information is probably passed on to the skilled workers by top management spontaneously through this casual interaction between them.

Another obstacle to the free flow of information could be the level of literacy. Though the general rate of literacy among the employees is very high in these companies, the employees tended to be more educated the higher the positions they occupied. If the employees were provided with pamphlets on company policy, (as was confirmed by one company) it is feasible that those employees who are less literate might not adequately comprehend the written information.

6.4.3. Inconsistencies on Decisions Made by Top Management

In two of the companies studied, the unskilled employees expressed occasional incidents of unfairness with regards to the promotion of people from within the companies. They strongly felt that some people who got promoted were not more deserving than the others who were overlooked.

6.4.4 Entrepreneurial Aspect of Companies

Zimbabwean companies are generally believed to be entrepreneurial in their management approach because they survived the sanctions of the UDI period (MacDonald, 1990). Contrary to this expectation, the results from the semantic differential showed that the companies are equally entrepreneurial and equally bureaucratic. An explanation for this unexpected finding could be that when the civil war escalated in the mid-1970's many experienced white managers emigrated (MacDonald, 1990). Prior to independence, there was exclusive white domination of all decision-making in Zimbabwe and this included the management of companies (Patsanza, 1988). When the sanctions were imposed on Rhodesia during the UDI period, it was the white managers who bore the pressure of managing under the effects of economic isolation and its resultant impingement on company growth. The experience of managing under these adverse conditions resulted in their developing invaluable entrepreneurial skills, for as it is commonly said, "necessity is the mother of invention." In this pre-independence era, Blacks were relegated to non-decision making jobs so that they never got the opportunity to manage and gain similar entrepreneurial skills. That period of high entrepreneurship effectively ended around 1975 after many white managers had left the country as a result of the war. This study, however, covers the period after independence, from 1988 to the present, a period during which the ratio between Blacks and Whites in management has drastically changed.

The breed of managers in companies of the post-independence Zimbabwe is not the same as that of managers who survived the sanctions of the UDI period. This view is confirmed by the finding that soon after independence, the rate of Blacks appointed to managerial positions in Zimbabwean companies was higher than that of Blacks appointed to managerial positions in South African companies over the same period.

The proportion of Blacks promoted to various levels of managerial positions in Zimbabwean companies are as follows: junior management 94%, middle management 85% and senior management 68% (Hofmeyr, 1992). This big change in the type of people managing the companies could have influenced some changes in the management approach.

6.5 GENERAL CONCLUSIONS OF THE STUDY

6.5.1 Implications for Management Theory

The implications for management theory drawn from the results of this study are discussed in the light of the management theories developed previously by other management researchers and authors. The results of the findings of this study are in harmony with the theory by Drucker (1977), that the management of any institution should seek to fulfil the purpose of:

- a. making the worker productive;
- b. managing social impacts and social responsibility.

The excellent companies in Zimbabwe have been found to fulfill these important roles as follows:

6.5.1.1 *Management To Make Work Productive And To Turn The Worker Into An Achiever*

The excellent companies in Zimbabwe have been found to have a keen interest in making the worker productive. This is evidenced by the employee training programmes prevalent in all the companies studied. Employees are trained in-house and or externally as has been shown by the results. This confirms the fulfillment of the second role required of business as explained by Drucker (1972; 1974; 1977), making the work productive and turning the worker into an active achiever. The successes of these companies, based on the financial criteria and the macroeconomic criteria used in the study, are productivity-related. This is evidence of the fact that the employees are productive and it further shows that the management of these companies have succeeded in making the worker productive. Also, the theory of training workers harmonises well with the African concept that the imparting of skills develops not only the individual but also the community as a whole and should be cherished. Enriching another by imparting skills to him is as important as giving alms to the poor (Singh, 1996). This concept is valuable to African management theory for it is skilled people who increase productivity.

6.5.1.2 *The Management Of Social Involvement*

The excellent Zimbabwean companies have increasingly become involved in social responsibility. This is another requirement which Drucker (1977); Makower (1994); say is required for business to fulfill. Also from an African management point of view, involvement in the community is the essence of the African culture for *Umntu ngumuntu ngabanye* (i.e. a person is what he is because of others). This implies that successful companies should always be mindful of the communities surrounding them.

When they succeed they should also share their successes with their neighbourhoods. The excellent companies are what they are because of the people working for them and because of the environment in which they are operating.

6.5.1.3 *Other Implications To Management Theory*

The management of excellent companies in Zimbabwe has confirmed some of the management principles applied by other researchers in previous studies. The attributes espoused by Peters and Waterman (1982); Ball and Asbury (1989), on the companies' concern with the provision of quality goods and services, the decentralisation and centralisation of the companies mentioned by Hobbs (1987); Robson (1986), constant communication with employees emphasized by Ouchi (1981), have all been confirmed by this study. The African management approaches found in these companies bore some similarities to Western management theories. This shows that there are certain values and principles such as the need for high quality and the need for information which are cross-cultural.

6.5.2 Reasons for Some Similarities Between Zimbabwean and Western Companies

Quite a number of the management attributes discovered about the Zimbabwean excellent companies are a confirmation of many of those of the West. For example, the concern of the companies with the quality of products and services, the care for customers, the centralised and decentralised organizational structure, promotion from within, and training of employees have been found to be similar to those identified in some Western companies. Some of the main reasons for these similarities could be as follows:

1. There are certain things which are common to consumer markets anywhere. The quality of products and service is one of them. As noted by Garvin (1990), customers always need the products which possess reliability, adaptability, and serviceability. These qualities, together with customer care, are synonymous with "convenience" to the customer. These companies, therefore, seek to satisfy the needs of the customers which are predominant in all cultures. Through this emphasis on qualities that are common to all people, these companies can, therefore, even expand their markets internationally with confidence.

2. The other reason is that the management attributes such as centralisation and decentralisation of the decision structures are similar to those of the West as a result of the importation of ideas from abroad by Zimbabweans. As has been discussed in Chapter 1 of this study, Zimbabwe was a colony of Britain for over 80 years. The influence of foreign customs and culture has, therefore, been inevitable in the country. Most of the companies operating in the country and many of those studied originate from the West and some of them still have their Head Quarters in some Western capitals, and others are in South Africa. The Head Offices of these companies tend to standardise their policies and operations and this influences the management approaches of the companies.

6.5.2.1 Some Management Attributes Peculiar to Zimbabwe

1. Participative Style Of Management

There are certain management attributes discovered in these companies which are peculiar to Zimbabwe. The kind of participative style of management which

results in arriving at decisions by consensus among managers, where no single person makes all the decisions, is characteristic of the Zimbabwean situation. Even though there is a strong tendency towards centralisation of key decisions in Zimbabwe than in the West, the decisions at the top are made by a group of managers. The chief executive serves to provide an atmosphere for making decisions by consensus and consultation. This style of management is characteristic of the African philosophy of communalism (*ubuntu*) which emphasises group performance as opposed to individualism (Singh, 1996; Khoza, 1993). Junior managers consult before they make a decision, contrary to the suggestion by Montgomery (1987:913) that "African managers are conservative and change resistant, preferring the unacceptable present to the unpredictable future." This assertion implies that African managers would wait and do nothing until senior management thinks of a decision and then tell them what to do. The findings in this study refute that suggestion. The evidence of the findings shows that the managers of the Zimbabwean excellent companies think of a decision and then consult, and this practice is in harmony with '*ubuntu*' or African communalism.

However, the extent of participation concerning the decisions made by managers in Zimbabwean excellent companies is not the same as that of the Japanese, because the Japanese consult right from the bottom of the organisation, involving the shop floor workers in making even key decisions (Ouchi, 1981). Zimbabwean companies on the other hand involve employees of a lower level only on certain decisions that affect them such as production targets and employees' welfare. Other policy matters are decided on at senior management level. There is, however, consensus in the decision making at senior management level.

2. *Constant Communication With All The Levels Of Employees*

The management attribute of constant formal communication with all the employees through workers' committees is another one common to the Zimbabwean excellent companies. Previous studies by Peters and Waterman (1982); Ball and Asbury (1989); and Robson (1986) do not mention this attribute in their lists of the attributes of excellent companies. Even though the idea of the workers' committees is not the initiative of these companies, it is the way they manage the committees which results in harmony between the employees and management. Six of these companies, for example, train their workers' committees in order to enable them to be conversant with their role. The absence of strikes in all the companies studied could be attributed to the openness of communication between management and the employees.

3. *Contribution by the Companies to Social Responsibility*

The companies in this study contribute to social responsibility. This practice stems from both the Western and the African culture. It is a fulfillment of one of the requirements of the management of a business entity (Drucker, 1977).

6.5.2.2 *A Summary of the Study's Contribution to Knowledge*

Considering the discussion in the sections above, the contribution to knowledge by the study is in two forms:

1. A discovery of management attributes peculiar to Zimbabwean excellent companies.
2. A contribution to knowledge pertaining to a geographical region.

1. *A Discovery of New Management Attributes*

The management attributes such as a participative style of management, constant communication with employees through workers committees, and involvement in social responsibility are new and they add to a discovery of the management attributes. Previous studies did not have such attributes.

2. *A Contribution to Knowledge Pertaining to a Geographical Region*

This kind of contribution comprises of both the management attributes similar to those of previous studies and those which are new. Those similar to previous studies contribute to knowledge in the sense that even though the ideas discovered in this study are familiar concerning excellent companies of the West, they are new to Zimbabwe. Such ideas are a discovery of knowledge for Zimbabwe. Confirmation has been established that some attributes common among excellent companies of the West also feature in Zimbabwean excellent companies.

6.5.3 Implications for Benefits of the Study to Zimbabwe

It is the hope of the researcher that the problems to the Zimbabwean economy which have been enumerated in the first chapter of this study, and which have been summarised in the first section of this chapter, will be largely resolved through the implementation of the findings of this study. The potential benefits of the study to the country of Zimbabwe have been enumerated in Chapter 1.

6.5.2 Implications for Further Study

Firstly, this study has concentrated on the discovery of the management attributes of Zimbabwean excellent companies. Further research could be undertaken to examine the attributes of poorly performing companies to establish if there are any differences in the management of the two different types of companies.

Secondly, a further study could be conducted to establish whether there are any other factors besides management contributing to the success of Zimbabwean companies. The emphasis in this study has been the management attributes. There could be other additional factors which contribute significantly to the success of the companies.

Lastly, this study is exploratory and its main purpose has been to identify the management attributes and to discover the manner in which Zimbabwean excellent companies are managed. It has not, however, offered specific suggestions of how such attributes could be introduced to different companies. The knowledge to do this could be gained through further studies.

6.6 CONCLUSION

This research has been conducted to discover the management attributes of excellent companies in Zimbabwe. Excellence in this study has been measured in terms of the financial and macroeconomic criteria. The results have shown that in order for companies to be excellent, they need to be managed in a particular way. There could be many other factors other than the management approaches that contribute to

excellence in the companies investigated. However, to include such other factors in a study of this nature would not be possible.

The management attributes discovered are common to all the companies studied regardless of industry. The term excellence always has the connotation that the company is running smoothly in all aspects but this is not always the case. In their endeavour to achieve excellent results, these companies do not have an easy task. In spite of their well planned management approaches, they could not all meet the expectations of their employees. There were shortcomings in the practical implementation of some of the management attributes like communication, for example, which resulted in employees of some of the companies being unaware of some of their benefits. If these companies took advantage of the interactive process inherent in the management attributes, it is possible that they could continue to excel. The African cultural values are evident in the management approach of the Zimbabwean excellent companies. It is thus manifest that Western management theories can be incorporated into the African culture to attain excellence in management.

This study has been conducted exclusively on excellent companies. Management attributes of any other type of company could be the subject of further research, as has been indicated earlier in this thesis. Because the management attributes discovered in this study have been found to be practiced by the excellent companies, it is recommended that even non-excellent performing enterprises should implement these attributes.

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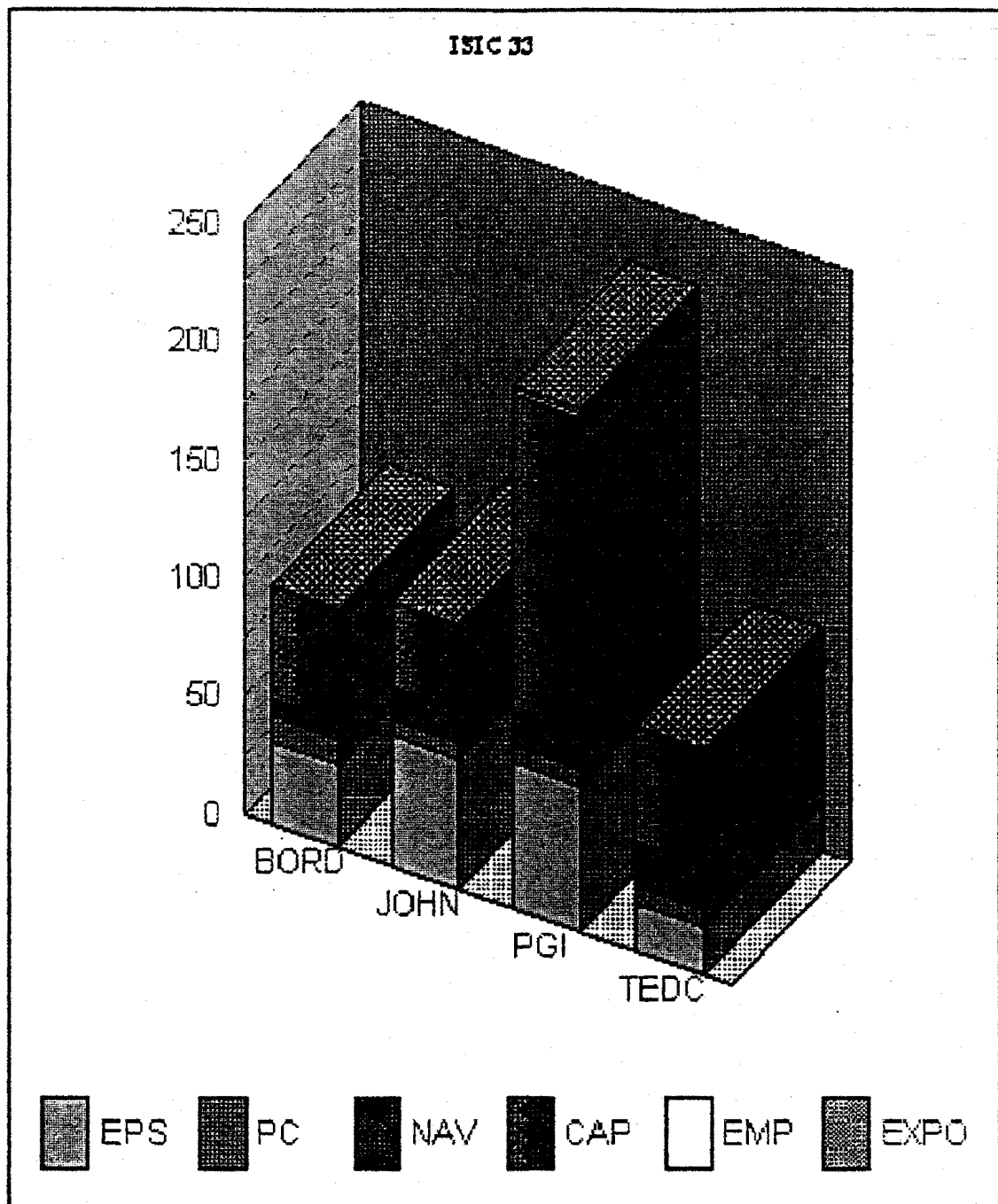
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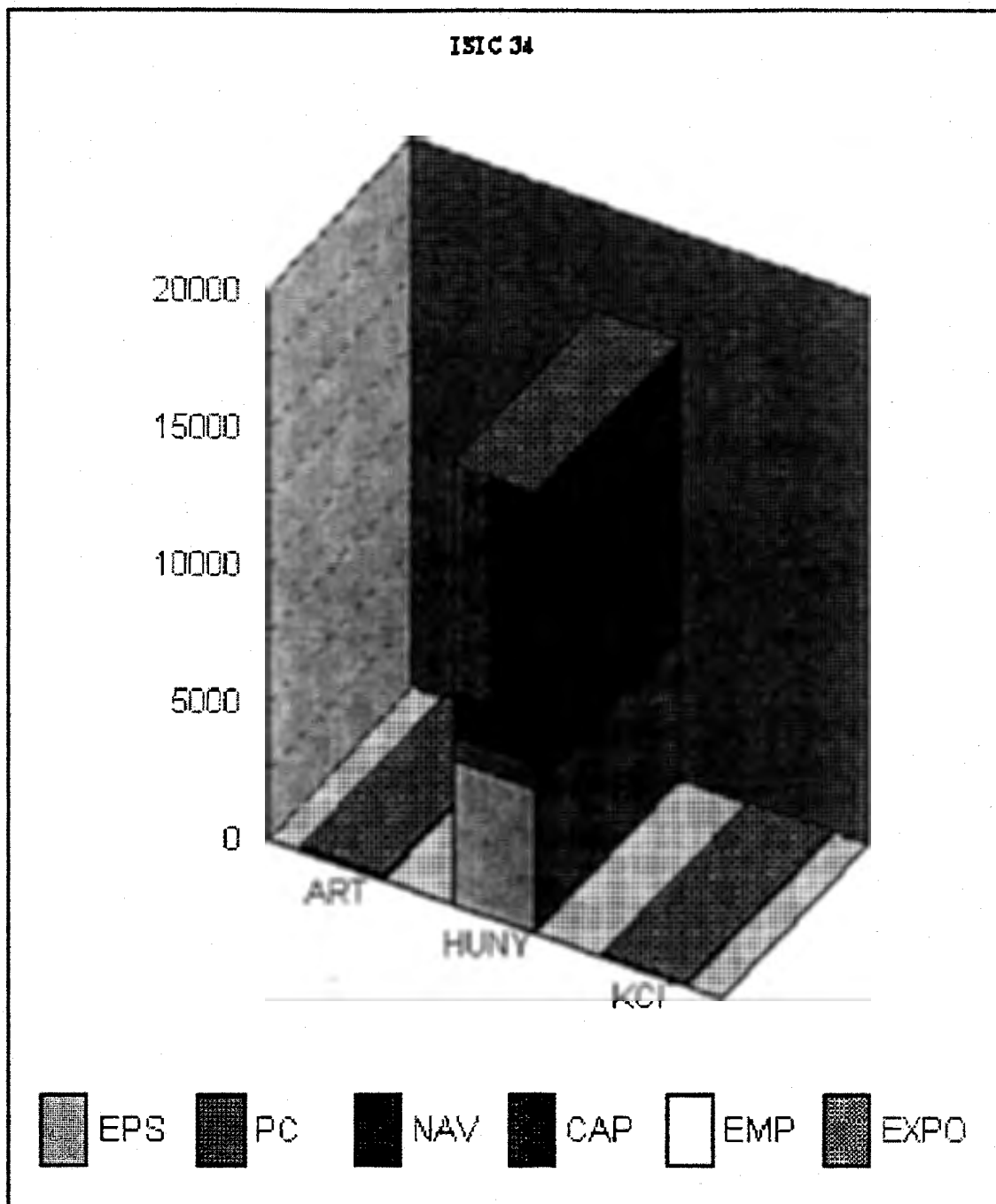
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APPENDIX A-1**MEAN VALUES AND BAR CHARTS FOR SELECTION CRITERIA**

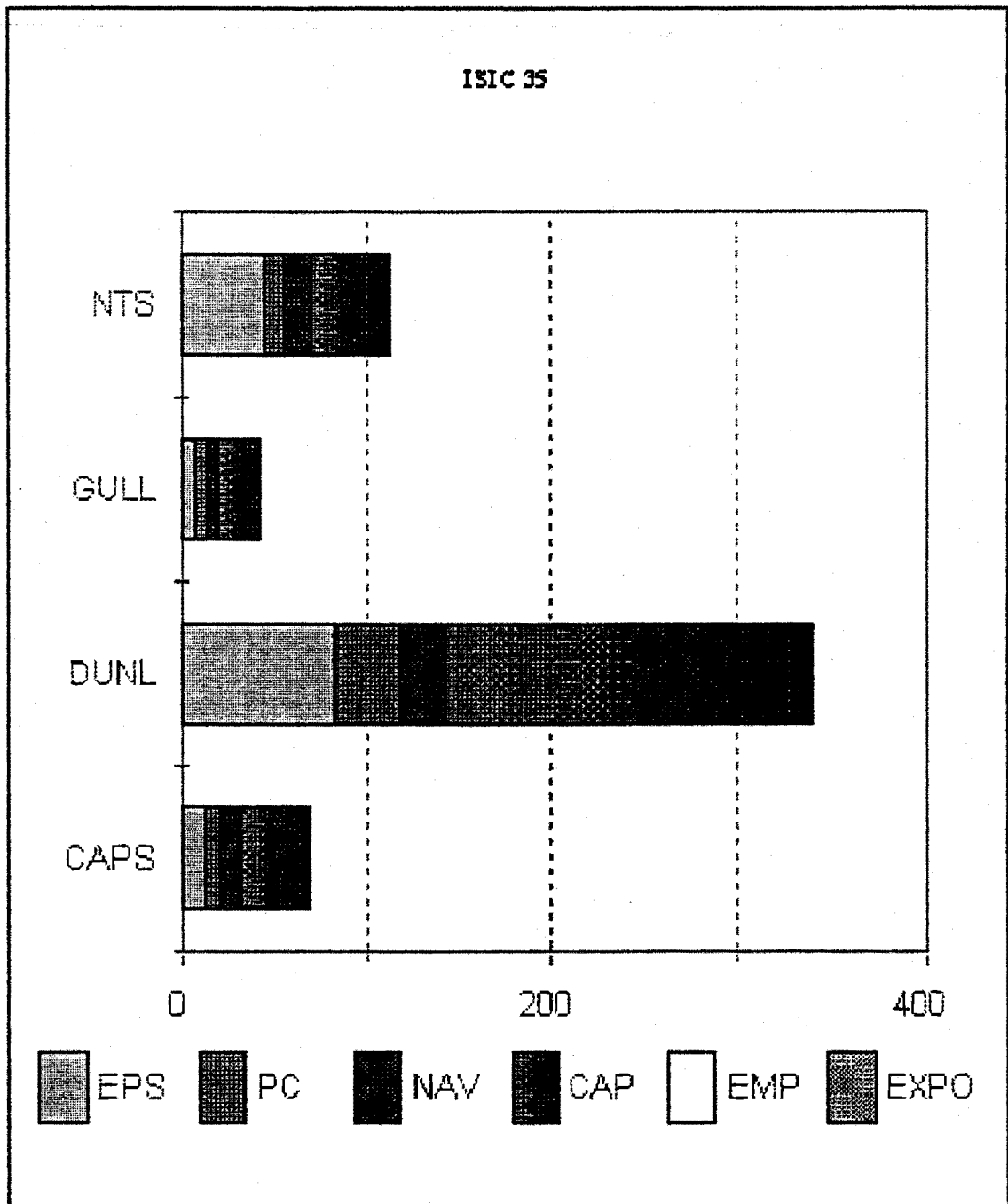
	Code	EPS	NET	NAV	CAP	EMPLO	EXPO
BORD	33	34,26	11,4	7,12	46,45	0,33	1
JOHN	33	54,91	6,98	13,52	36,25	0	0
PGI	33	61,41	7,91	14,12	134,16	2,16	2
TEDC	33	19,91	7,34	19,31	48,51	0	0



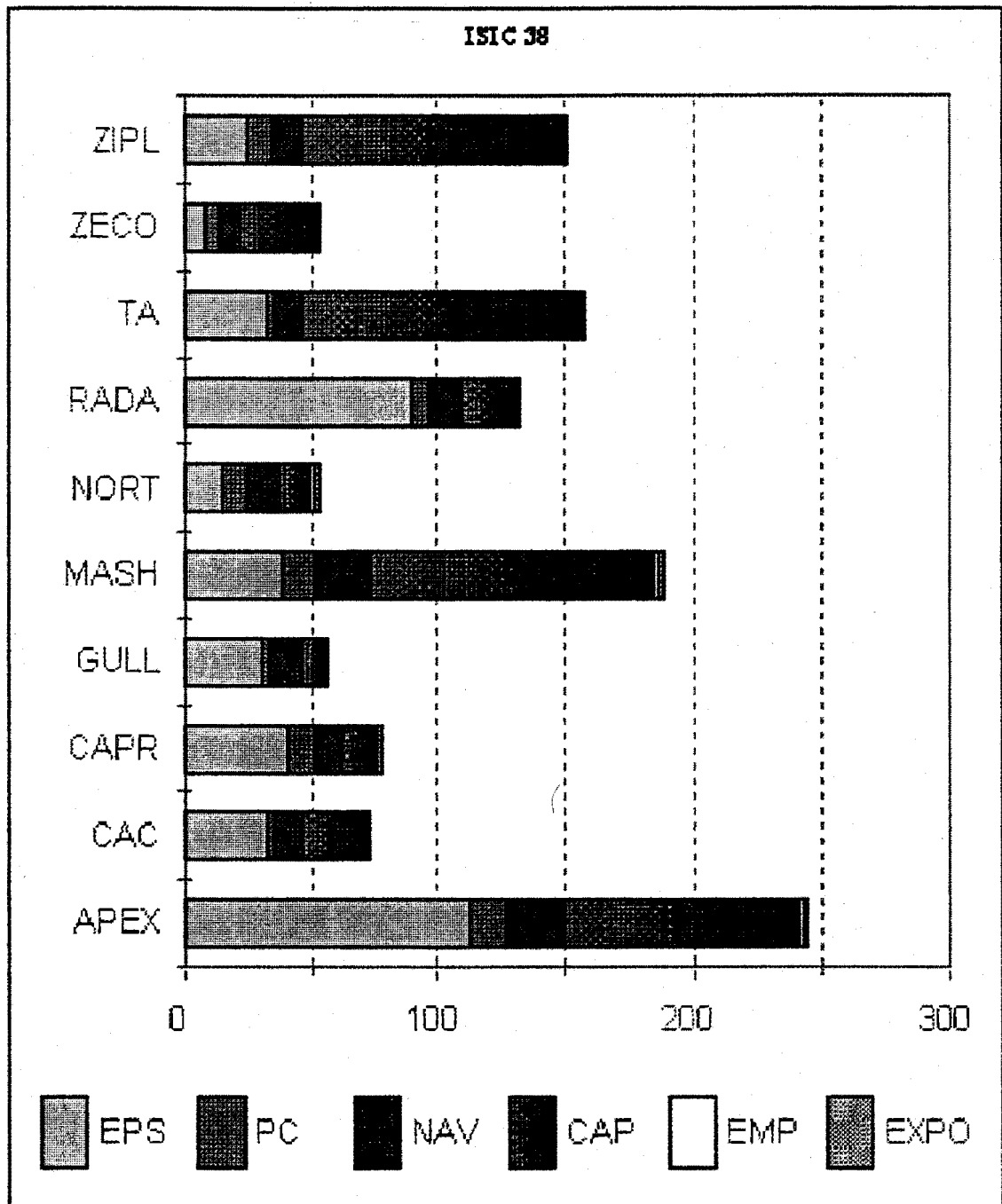
	Code	EPS	NET	NAV	CAPT	EMPL	EXPO
ART	34	75,37	9,77	20,8	93,14	2	1
HUNY	34	19,91	7,34	19,31	48,51	2	0,83
KCI	34	28,27	5,76	7,97	80,8	0	1



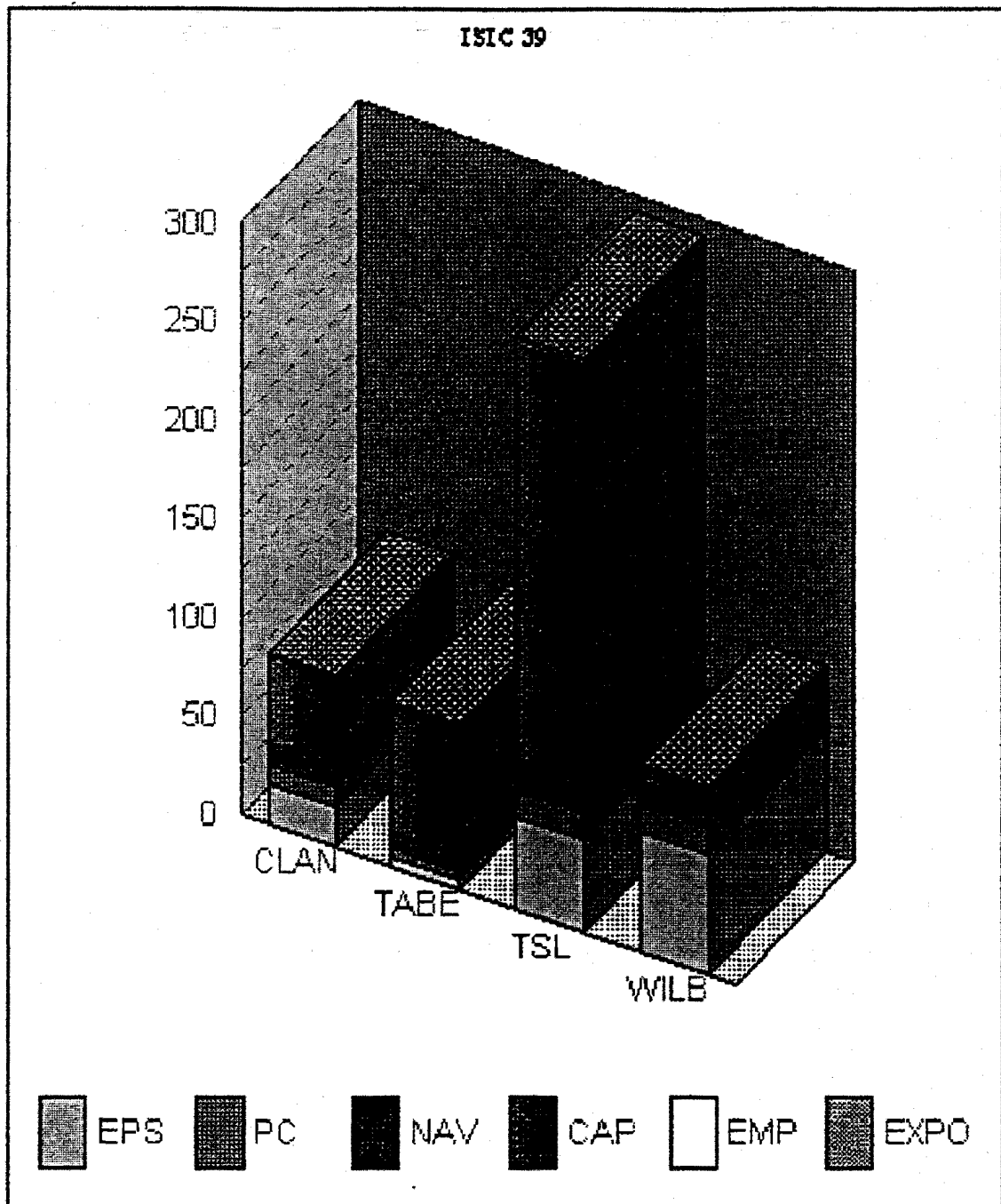
	Code	EPS	NET	NAV	CAPT	EMPL	EXPO
CAPS	35	12,66	7,01	11,54	35,37	1,5	1
DUNL	35	83,26	34,33	24,8	194,87	1	1,33
GULL	35	7,25	5,98	5,9	22,51	0	0
NTS	35	44,05	11,96	14,61	38,37	2	1



	Code	EPS	NET	NAV	CAPT	EMPL	EXPO
APEX	38	112,66	14,9	22,67	90,62	1	1
CAC	38	32,35	3,45	10,67	24,5	0,33	0,33
CAPR	38	40,94	10,14	11,4	12,12	1,33	1,33
MASH	38	38,77	12,53	21,49	111,32	2	2
NORT	38	15,21	9,89	12,62	11,93	2	1,66
RADA	38	89,7	6,73	12,96	23,08	0	0
TA	38	32,19	3,11	11,45	109,59	1	1
ZECO	38	8,47	5,83	7,96	30,71	0,5	0,33
ZPL	38	24,7	9,96	11,84	103,92	1	0



	Code	EPS	NET	NAV	CAPT	EMPL	EXPO
CLAN	39	30,2	10,21	10,98	43,42	1	1
TABE	39	5,15	4,22	8,05	63,24	1,5	1
TSL	39	46,63	13,92	15,36	211,15	2,17	2,17
WILB	39	61,2	13,18	11,92	6,86	1,17	0,33



APPENDIX A-2 : ISIC Categories

CODE	CATEGORY OF COMPANY
31	Food & Beverages
32	Textiles and Leather
33	Wood and Furniture
34	Paper and Printing
35	Chemicals and Rubber
36	Non-Metallic Mineral Products
37	Basic Metals
38	Metal Products, Machinery & Equipment
39	Other (services)

APPENDIX A -3: Companies selected for the study

CODE	NAME OF COMPANY
31	Delta Corporation Ltd
32	Zimbabwe Spinweave and Weavers
33	PG Industries
34	Art Corporation of Zimbabwe Ltd
35	National Tyre Services
38	Apex - Phoenix
39	TSL

APPENDIX B

THE INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

QUESTIONS FOR THE CHIEF EXECUTIVE OFFICER

Strategy

1. What business is this company in?
2. What are the objectives of this company?
3. What is the mission of this company? Has it ever changed at all since the company started? If Yes, why? If no, why?
4. Who are your customers?
5. What do your customers want?
6. To what do you attribute the success of this company?
7. What achievements has this company had over the last five years?
8. What problems did the company have over the past five years?
9. What attributes contribute to success within the industry?

Evidence of Planning

1. What future opportunities exist for this company?
2. What are the strengths of this company?
3. What are the company's weaknesses?
4. What is the position of the company with regard to competitors?
5. What would you like your company to achieve and when?
6. In what environment will your plans operate?

Management Style

1. What is your philosophy of managing the company as chief executive officer?
2. What style of management do you use?
3. What determines the choice of a management style in this company?
4. How has the company been managed in the previous years?
5. How are decisions made in this company?
6. Who makes major decisions in this company?
7. What method do you use to co-ordinate all the branches or departments of

- the company?
8. What contribution do other senior managers make towards the running of this company?
 9. Would you say that the decision making in this company is centralised or decentralised? Why?
 10. What role do employees play in the making of company decisions?

Communication within the company

1. Are the company values and objectives known to all the employees in this company? If yes; how do they come to know them?
2. How do you get to know about major developments in any department within the company? How soon does such information reach you?
3. How does each of the departments in this company get to know of what is happening in other departments?
4. To which group of people within the company do future plans get communicated?
5. How do you get to know about the needs of your employees?

Fostering of Values and Beliefs through Appraisals, Promotions, and Punishments

1. What criteria do you use for selecting the employees?
2. How often are the employees evaluated for promotion?
3. What method of appraisal is used?
4. What is considered to be most important in the promotion of employees?
5. What incentives do you give your employees to encourage them to work harder?
6. If there are any awards given to employees within the company, for what achievement are such awards given?
7. For what cause do you deny an employee a salary increment?
8. For what reason do you demote an employee?
9. For what reason do you discharge an employee?

Training of Employees

1. Do you train employees in your company? If you do what methods do you use?
2. What is the purpose of training the employees in the company?
3. What does the company achieve through training employees?
4. What are your future personnel needs?

Relations with stakeholders

1. What is your philosophy concerning your stakeholders, i.e. customers, suppliers, and trade unions?
2. For what customer service is this company renowned?
3. Have you had any problems with the trade unions over any issue concerning the company within the last three years?
4. What activities or projects do you have to assist the community surrounding you?
5. Is there any way in which you assist the government either directly or indirectly?

QUESTIONS FOR THE DEPARTMENTAL MANAGERS**Strategy**

1. What business is this company in?
2. What is the objective of this company?
3. What would you say about the co-ordination of your department with other departments?
4. How does your department contribute to the objectives of the company as a whole?
5. What achievements has this company had over the past five years?
6. What do you think attributes to the success of this company?

Planning

1. What future prospects exist for this company?
2. What would you say are the strengths and weaknesses of this company?
3. How much of a threat are your competitors?

4. What other threats do you foresee in the future?
5. What are the future plans of this company?

Management Style

1. What management style is used in the running of this company?
2. Do you feel encouraged to make suggestions affecting the overall policies of the company? Why?
3. Would you say that the decision making in this company is centralised or decentralised? Why?
4. What decisions affecting your department do you have to refer to top management?
5. Do the employees have a way of suggesting any improvements on the way things are done in the company?
6. What style of management would you prefer to be used in this company?

Communication

1. How often do you meet with the chief executive officer to discuss about the progress of your department?
2. Do you go to his office or he visits your department?
3. What are the major values of this company in general?
4. How does the information of the progress or events taking place in other departments reach you?
5. Are you always informed of the official future plans of this company? How are you informed?
6. How do you get to know about the needs of the employees in your department?
7. How does top management get to know about the needs of the employees?

Fostering of values

1. What is considered most in your department for recommending an employee for promotion?
2. For what cause would an employee be denied an increase of salary ?
3. For what reason would an employee be suspended from work?
4. For what reason would an employee be demoted from a position?
5. For what reason would an employee be discharged from work?

Human Resources

1. What criteria do you use for selecting employees in this company?
2. What quality of employees do you think you have compared to other firms in the industry?
3. To what do you attribute your assessment?
4. What incentives if any are given employees to upgrade their skills?
5. Considering the future plans of the company, what are the future personnel needs in your department?

Relations with Stakeholders

1. What philosophy exists within this company with regard to customers, suppliers, shareholders, and trade unions?
2. Do you have any problems with the trade unions?
3. What do you perceive to be the attitude of the members of the public towards this company?

QUESTIONS FOR THE EMPLOYEES

1. What is the purpose of this company?
2. Who would you say are the customers of this company?
3. What is your view about the product of this company compared with other companies?
4. What criteria are used for selecting employees in this company?
5. Who gets promoted in this company?
6. Would you prefer to work for this company even if you had an alternative job? Why?
7. What good things would you say about this company?
8. What would you want to see changed in this company?
9. How are decisions made in this company?
10. Are you given an opportunity to suggest changes or improvements in this company? How?
11. Are there any changes which have been implemented as a result of your suggestions?

IN MY COMPANY,

APPENDIX C

THE MANAGEMENT STYLE IS:

	VERY	FAIRLY	EQUALLY	FAIRLY	VERY	
A. RIGID	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	FLEXIBLE
B. BUREACRATIC	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	ENTREPRENEURIAL
C. DECISIVE	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	INDECISIVE
D. REMOTE	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	INVOLVED
E. CONSISTENT	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	INCONSISTENT
F. TASK-ORIENTED	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	PEOPLE-ORIENTED
G. DIRECTIVE	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	PARTICIPATIVE
H. PROACTIVE	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	REACTIVE
I. FORMAL	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	INFORMAL
J. CUSTOMER ORIENTED	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	ACCOUNTING ORIENTED
K. STRATEGICALLY ORIENTED	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	SHORT-TERM ORIENTED

APPENDIX D : COMPANY OBSERVATION CHART

	FACTOR OBSERVED			
1	Sign Posts Leading to Company Premises	Very clear & Conspicuous	Clear	Unclear
2	General Outlook of Surrounding	Very clean	Clean	Untidy
3	Reception of Visitors and Phone	Very Warm and Welcoming	Warm	Cold
4	Customer Parking	Very Spacious	Spacious	Small
5	Employee Relations	Very Good	good	Bad
6	General appearance of offices	Very clean and orderly	Clean and orderly	Untidy and Disorganised
7	Employee services provided	Subsidised Canteen/clinic	Any other facility	None
8	Transport Services for staff	Available and good	Available but poor	None
9	Organisation of Staff Offices (Does it facilitate communication?)	Very good	Unsatisfactory	Poor
10	General Atmosphere	Warm and business like	Tight and Tense	Negative and hostile
11	Any other observation			

APPENDIX E : QUANTITATIVE DATA FOR THE PILOT STUDYFirst Test : Semantic differential: sample size = 15

3	3	3	2	4	3	3	4	3	3	3	3	3	4	3
2	3	2	3	3	2	2	3	2	2	2	3	3	3	2
2	2	2	2	2	2	3	2	2	2	4	3	2	2	3
2	2	2	2	2	3	3	3	2	3	3	3	3	3	3
2	2	2	2	2	2	3	3	2	3	2	2	2	2	2
3	2	2	3	3	2	2	2	3	2	2	3	3	2	2
2	2	2	2	2	2	3	2	3	2	2	2	3	2	2
2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	2	2	2	2	3	2
3	2	2	2	2	3	2	3	2	3	2	2	2	3	2
3	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	2	2	3
2	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	2	2	2	3	2	2	2

Second Test : Semantic Differential :

3	4	3	3	3	4	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	4	3
2	3	2	2	2	2	3	2	2	3	2	2	3	3	3
2	2	2	2	3	2	2	4	2	3	2	2	3	2	3
2	2	3	2	2	2	3	3	3	3	4	2	3	4	3
2	2	3	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	3	2	3	3	2
2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	3	2	2	3	3	2
2	3	2	2	2	2	3	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
2	3	2	2	2	2	3	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
2	2	2	2	2	2	3	3	3	3	2	2	2	2	3
2	3	2	2	2	2	2	3	2	2	2	2	3	2	2
2	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	2	2	2	2	2	3	3

Data for the Observation Chart : First Test: sample size = 15

2	2	2	2	2	3	2	2	2	2	3	3	2	2	1
3	2	2	2	2	3	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	2	2
2	1	3	3	3	2	2	3	3	2	2	2	2	2	3
2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	3	2	2
3	2	2	2	2	2	3	3	2	2	2	3	3	3	2
2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	2	2
2	1	2	2	2	2	3	2	2	2	2	2	3	2	2
2	2	2	2	2	1	2	2	2	3	2	2	2	2	3
2	2	2	2	2	3	2	2	3	2	2	2	3	2	2
3	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2

Second Test: Observation Chart:

2	2	2	3	3	2	2	2	3	2	2	3	2	3	1
2	3	2	2	2	2	3	2	2	2	3	3	2	2	2
2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	2	2	2	3
3	2	2	2	2	3	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	2
3	3	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	2	2
2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	2	2
2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	3
2	2	2	2	2	2	1	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	2	2	2	3
2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	2

The values given in all the tables above represent individual responses to the questionnaire. Each response should be read vertically from top to bottom.

Appendix F

M I D R A N D

994-12-06

TO THE GENERAL MANAGER

Re: REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO STUDY YOUR COMPANY:
MR REINFORD KHUMALO

Mr R Khumalo is doing a doctoral study on top companies selected from each industry in Zimbabwe to identify their organisation's culture and style of management. This exercise is solely for academic purposes. Your company is among those selected.

Could you please allow Mr Khumalo to hold interviews with you and some of your employees as he specifies? Each interview will take no more than an hour. He would need to observe the company as well. He will show you the questions he intends to ask all the interviewees should you want to see them.

The maximum period he will spend in your company will be 7 days.

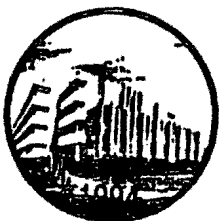
Thanking you for your assistance in this matter.

Yours faithfully



PROF KARL B HOFMEYR
PROMOTER

/eb



Leadership in practice

First Street Extension Midrand 1685
PO Box 392 Pretoria 0001
Tel: (011) 652-0000
Fax: (011) 652-0299
International tel nr: 27-11- 652 0000

Leierskap in die praktyk

Eerstestraatverenging Midrand 1685
Posbus 392 Pretoria 0001
Tel: (011) 652-0000
Faks: (011) 652-0299
Internasionale tel nr: 27-11- 652 0000

APPENDIX G : DATA FROM THE QUANTITATIVE INSTRUMENTS USED

1. DATA FROM THE SEMANTIC DIFFERENTIAL

	COMPANY
001 01 2 1 1 4 4 1 4 4 4 4 4	3
002 04 5 4 3 5 1 1 5 2 5 3 1	1
003 02 5 5 1 5 1 5 5 1 1 1 1	4
004 03 2 2 1 5 3 3 1 5 5 1 5	1
005 05 1 1 3 1 3 1 1 3 3 1 3	7
006 04 2 3 2 4 3 3 1 5 4 2 5	2
007 02 5 5 1 5 1 5 5 1 1 1 1	1
008 05 5 5 1 5 1 3 3 2 1 1 1	4
009 03 1 1 5 2 5 5 2 3 1 1 1	7
010 03 4 5 1 5 1 1 5 2 2 1 1	7
011 05 5 4 1 5 1 1 4 1 2 1 1	4
012 02 2 5 2 5 1 1 3 4 3 1 2	5
013 03 5 5 4 5 3 2 5 5 1 2 1	4
014 01 4 3 4 2 2 2 4 3 3 3 4	6
015 03 5 3 4 5 2 5 3 4 1 3 1	1
016 03 4 5 1 5 2 1 5 4 1 1 2	4
017 03 5 3 2 5 1 3 5 1 2 1 3	1
018 05 1 3 2 3 3 1 3 1 2 5 1	1
019 05 4 3 2 3 2 3 4 3 3 1 1	2
020 02 5 3 2 3 2 3 5 5 3 2 4	7
021 05 4 4 1 5 2 2 4 2 1 1 3	4
022 02 4 2 2 5 2 1 1 3 5 1 5	7
023 05 3 4 3 5 1 5 3 3 1 5 5	7
024 03 3 4 3 5 1 5 3 3 1 5 5	2
025 05 3 5 1 5 1 3 3 3 3 3 3	4
026 02 5 2 2 3 2 3 3 3 3 2 1	1
027 05 4 3 3 5 3 3 5 3 3 3 2	1
028 02 4 1 2 4 2 1 2 5 2 1 2	2
029 05 3 5 1 3 1 1 2 1 1 1 1	4
030 02 3 4 2 5 2 4 4 2 3 1 1	1
031 05 3 2 2 1 4 1 1 3 3 2 5	4

032 02 2 2 1 5 2 5 3 2 2 1 1	4
033 01 5 5 1 5 1 3 5 1 1 2 1	1
034 02 3 3 3 4 1 2 1 3 1 1 3	3
035 03 4 1 3 3 2 2 2 4 2 1 3	4
036 03 1 1 4 1 5 1 1 5 5 5 1	2
037 02 5 3 4 5 5 3 3 4 5 2 3	1
038 05 1 1 2 1 4 1 1 4 2 2 2	2
039 02 2 3 2 3 1 3 1 3 2 1 1	3
040 05 4 1 2 2 5 5 2 5 5 2 2	1
041 01 4 5 4 5 2 3 3 2 4 2 2	2
042 05 1 1 1 5 2 3 5 2 2 1 2	1
043 02 4 3 4 3 5 3 2 2 5 5 5	3
044 05 2 3 1 2 3 1 1 1 3 1 2	4
045 02 3 3 2 5 2 4 4 1 2 1 1	3
046 03 5 5 1 5 1 3 4 2 2 1 2	2
047 02 2 2 3 2 2 1 4 3 4 5 5	6
048 05 4 3 3 4 2 4 5 2 1 1 1	4
049 03 2 4 3 4 3 1 2 2 4 3 4	2
050 04 4 3 3 4 2 4 3 2 2 4 4	6
051 05 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3	6
052 05 2 2 2 4 3 3 3 3 1 1 3	4
053 05 1 2 2 2 1 1 2 3 3 2 3	4
054 03 3 4 2 2 3 3 4 3 2 4 3	1
055 05 4 4 5 1 5 1 5 3 5 5 5	5
056 02 3 3 2 4 3 3 3 2 4 3 3	4
057 05 4 5 2 5 4 1 4 5 1 1 2	7
058 05 3 3 4 2 4 1 2 4 3 3 3	5
059 05 4 5 2 5 2 3 3 2 3 2 3	1
060 05 4 4 3 2 4 1 4 3 1 1 1	4
061 04 4 3 4 5 2 3 4 3 4 2 1	1
062 02 2 1 2 3 4 3 1 4 4 3 4	6
063 02 2 2 4 2 5 1 1 4 1 5 5	5
064 05 4 3 2 4 2 4 2 4 3 2 2	6
065 04 5 4 2 5 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	2
066 05 3 3 2 3 3 2 2 3 3 5 5	4
067 03 5 1 1 5 1 2 1 5 5 2 3	2
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069 04 3 3 1 3 4 3 2 3 4 3 3	5
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N.B. Key to interpretation of data:

Respondents: 01 Chief Executive; 02 Departmental Manager;
03 Skilled employee; 04 Semi-skilled Employee;
05 Unskilled Employee

2. DATA FROM THE OBSERVATION CHART

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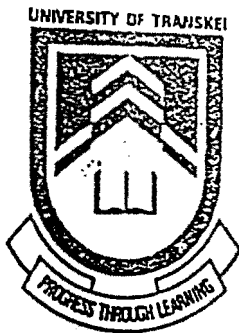
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172 05 2 2 2 3 2 2 1 3 1 1	4
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185 05 2 3 2 3 2 2 1 2 2 2	2
186 03 1 2 2 3 2 1 1 3 2 2	1
187 05 2 2 2 3 2 2 1 2 2 2	4
188 05 2 2 1 1 1 1 1 2 2 2	2
189 04 3 2 2 2 3 2 1 1 1 2	1
190 05 2 2 2 2 2 2 1 3 2 2	5
191 05 1 2 2 1 1 1 1 3 1 2	2
192 04 2 2 1 2 2 2 1 2 2 3	6
193 05 2 2 2 2 1 1 1 1 1 1	4
194 03 1 2 2 2 3 3 1 3 2 2	1
195 05 3 3 3 3 1 3 1 2 1 1	6
196 05 2 2 2 2 1 1 1 3 2 2	5

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198 05 1 1 1 1 2 2 1 2 2 1	4
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200 05 2 2 2 1 3 2 1 2 2 2	6
201 04 2 1 2 2 3 2 1 1 2 2	1
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308 02 2 1 2 1 2 1 2 2 2 2	4



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University of Transkei

Butterworth Branch

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Tel. (0474) 620011/620621 Fax (0474) 620634/5

20th April, 1995.

The Chief Executive Officer
(Name and address of Co)

Dear Mr

Thank you for allowing me to study your company. I would also like to thank your managers, and all the employees who participated in the interviews I conducted in the company.

Please find enclosed with this letter a transcribed copy of the direct words of the interviewees from your company. Could you please advise if these quotations are accurate and represent the actual words spoken by the respondents?

Yours sincerely

R. Khumalo

LECTURER: DEPARTMENT OF BUSINESS MANAGEMENT: UNITRA

PG INDUSTRIES (ZIMBABWE) LIMITED

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Telex 26603 Bevels ZW
Fax 791556
P.O. Box 1285
Harare

DEM/ar

Appendix I

26th May, 1995

Mr Reinford Khumalo,
Lecturer,
Department of Business Management,
Unitra,
Private Bag X3031,
Butterworth 4960,
R.S.A.

Dear Mr Khumalo,

I have tried for days to get through to your fax number but to no avail.

This is to advise that Mr Middlemost is happy with the draft copy of the results of the survey you conducted on our company.

Yours sincerely,



MISS A. ROSSEN
SECRETARY TO CHIEF EXECUTIVE